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THE SOUTHWESTERN SOCIAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY



Vol. XXXI

JUNE, 1950

No. 1

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The Southwestern Social Science Quarterly

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Industrialization of the Texas Gulf Coast Region*

EDWIN J. FOSCUE

Southern Methodist University

Tonight as we celebrate the thirty-first Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association, it seems fitting that we pause to consider the meaning of the term "Southwestern." Of course, most of us living in Texas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Kansas, or Missouri, *know exactly* what *we* mean by the Southwest—in fact, we have a Southwest Athletic Conference, so ably represented during the 1949 football season by Rice Institute of this city, but even that organization includes only Texas and Arkansas. The states of Oklahoma, Kansas, and Missouri belong to another athletic conference, Louisiana to another, and New Mexico to still another. And so it goes with each organization having the word "Southwest" or "Southwestern" in its name. But strange as it may seem to us, there is another Southwest in the United States which has a better claim to the term than have we. I refer, of course, to Arizona and Southern California. Recently, a friend of mine who is the System Geographer for Trans World Airline sent me a copy of their booklet on the Southwest Sun Country. In this publication I expected to see Texas discussed at great length, but to my surprise and consternation the study dealt only with Arizona and Southern California. Even though I realized that his Southwest was geographically more correct than ours, you may be sure that I told him of my disappointment in failing to find anything about Texas and our Southwest in his booklet.

For a number of years the geographers of the Southwestern Social Science Association have used the term "Gulf Southwest" for our region and "Pacific Southwest" for the other region. From the point of view of the individual states neither term is entirely adequate, since only two of the seven states included in this organization touch the Gulf of Mexico, and in the other area Arizona falls short of reaching the Pacific Ocean

*Presidential address presented at the Association's annual meeting at Houston, Texas, April 1950.

by almost two hundred miles. Nevertheless, the two terms might have merit if they could be adopted by any sizeable group of people in either region.

This evening, however, I prefer to narrow my field to a relatively small section of the Gulf Southwest—the Gulf Coast Region of Texas—limiting my area quite arbitrarily with the Rio Grande on the southwest and the Sabine River on the east. The inner boundary is somewhat indefinite, but for the present I shall confine it to the first and second rows of counties bordering the Gulf of Mexico. A few years ago one could easily have placed the seaward limit of Texas at the outer coast line of the offshore barrier reefs such as Galveston Island, Matagorda Island, and Padre Island, but today with all the debate and publicity over the tidal lands, one hesitates to put a seaward boundary on the area. However, I do not propose to debate the subject of Texas tidal lands this evening and hence I shall draw my seaward boundary at the edge of the dry land. My Texas Gulf Coast Region, then includes only the dry land portions of some twenty five Texas counties. This region, which I shall hereafter call the Texas Gulf Coast, is one of the oldest and at the same time one of the newest parts of the Gulf Southwest in its utilization by man.

Sequent Occupance

From the time of the early explorations by Alvarez de Piñeda in 1519, and the aimless wanderings of Cabeza de Vaca (1528-1534), to the collapse of La Salle's ill-fated French settlement on Matagorda Bay toward the close of the seventeenth century, no permanent settlements were made nor were any plans for its utilization proposed. Not until the establishment of the Spanish missions at Goliad and at Refugio in the eighteenth century could any permanent occupance be claimed for this area. The vast stretches of poorly-drained, flat coastal lands, covered for the most part by tall prairie grasses, offered little attraction to Spanish settlers or to the Anglo-Saxon pioneers who followed them. Those early English-speaking colonists, invited to Texas by Spain and Mexico, came largely over-land and hence established homesteads on the inner margin of the coastal area. Those who came by sea established such ports as Galveston, Anahuac, and Velasco to maintain their contacts with the outside, but they built their homesteads near the inner margin of the coastal area where better agricultural lands were to be found.

In a few places, particularly along the southwest coast, Spanish and Mexican hacendados grazed large herds of bony Moorish (Longhorn) cattle on the coastal prairie, but after the defeat of Santa Anna's army in 1836 they abandoned their holdings and withdrew south of the Rio Grande leaving their cattle to roam the brush country in a semi-wild

state. Soon there followed a period of "cattle hunting" either to ship the animals "on the hoof" by boat from the thirty or more cattle ports that sprang up along the Texas coast, or to slaughter them for their hides and tallow in some of the first industrial establishments of the region.

With the opening of the Great Plains to settlement after the Civil War, one of the most romantic periods of Texas history began when thousands of bony cattle from the Gulf coastal pastures were driven over the Dodge City Trail, the Chisholm Trail and others to new pastures in the Great Plains Region, or to the ends of the railroads being built southwestward from the packing centers of Chicago, Omaha, and Kansas City. The cattle era of the Texas Gulf Coast practically ended with these drives except in a few favored areas where large ranches of the King Ranch type had developed. The present cattle industry of the region dates from about the beginning of this century with the introduction of new breeds of cattle, particularly the Brahman or Zebu. The early 1900's witnessed also the development of extensive farming operations in the production of staple crops such as rice, sugar cane, cotton, and later the intensive cultivation of winter truck crops and citrus fruits in the Lower Rio Grande Valley and a few other sub-tropical localities.

Exploration for, and exploitation of mineral resources, especially oil, gas, salt, and sulphur also began about the turn of the century. When the Lucas well "blew in" at the Spindle Top Field near Beaumont in 1901, a new era was inaugurated along the Texas Gulf Coast. This field and others in the coastal area was associated with a buried salt dome. Soon all such structures that could be recognized by surface indications were drilled for oil. Natural gas, salt, and sulphur also were found by the drillers, but at that time these products had little value.

The presence of the many deeply-buried salt domes in the area and the great mineral wealth of the Gulf Coast was not fully appreciated, however, until after 1920, when the seismograph and other scientific instruments were used for geophysical prospecting. The period from 1920 to the outbreak of World War II might well be termed one of exploitation of our mineral resources, although the beginning of the industrialization of the coastal area through the manufacture of various products from petroleum, natural gas, salt, sulphur and other minerals was started during these years.

Geographic Background of Industry

Since the Gulf Coastal plain has a number of unique combinations of geographic relationships well suited to the type industry now being developed in the area, a brief consideration of the natural environment seems desirable.

Terrain. The entire area belongs in the outer coastal physiographic province, frequently referred to as the pine flatwoods and the coastal prairie. Being a flat, almost featureless plain, only a few feet above mean sea level, the area suffers from poor drainage. The plain is crossed by the major rivers of the state, which have a northwest-southeast trend. With the exception of the Brazos all of these rivers empty into shallow lagoons before finding their way to the Gulf of Mexico. The lagoons, which are broad but shallow, are formed behind off-shore barrier reefs, and thus they provide the natural setting for the several ports that have been developed. Since no natural deep harbors existed on the coast of Texas, maritime activity was retarded for more than a century after the region was settled. In recent years, however, deep water ports have been developed in the Sabine district at Port Arthur, Port Neches, Orange, and Beaumont; in the Galveston Bay district at Galveston, Texas City, Baytown, and Houston; in the Corpus Christi Bay district at Corpus Christi, and near the mouth of the Rio Grande at Port Isabel and Brownsville. In addition, channels have been dredged to make deep water ports out of Freeport and Port Lavaca. During this same period, the Intracoastal canal was completed as far west as Corpus Christi, and recently it was extended to Brownsville. The low and swampy terrain with its numerous shallow salt water lagoons favored the construction of deep water ports and provided ample factory sites on tidewater.

Climate. This area lies in the drier portion of the Humid Subtropical climatic region. The summers are hot and humid and the winters are generally mild, although occasionally large cold air masses move to the coast from the continental interior bringing sub-freezing temperatures. These play havoc with crops as far south as the Lower Rio Grande Valley, and temporarily cause great discomfort to industrial workers in the many factories of the area. Cold spells, however, are usually of short duration and do not seriously handicap industrial operations. This is fortunate because many of the manufacturing plants are constructed so that much of the machinery and most of the working areas are exposed to the elements. Another element of climate which frequently causes temporary handicaps to industry along the coast is the hurricane. The season for these violent tropical storms extends from about the middle of July to the end of October, and all parts of the area lie within the potential path of one or more of these storms each year. Because of this the Dow Chemical Company, whose Freeport plant is located on the outer coast, has established its own elaborate storm-warning devices which include the use of radar to detect storms while they are still more than two hundred miles out in the Gulf. It also has set up an elaborate disaster evacuation service which was of great value to the employees of the company as well as the all residents of the surrounding area during the hurricane which lashed the Houston district last September. In spite of

tropical storms in summer and occasional cold spells of weather in winter, the subtropical climate of the Gulf Coast is favorable to industrial development since a refreshing sea breeze blows from the Gulf of Mexico much of the time. This not only ameliorates the climate but also serves to dissipate fumes and gasses which might otherwise collect in local areas.

Transportation Facilities. In the early days of settlement along the Texas coast traffic moved overland by ox-team, or coast-wise by boat to the numerous small ports whose harbors were deep enough for nineteenth century shipping. During the latter part of that century, however, railroads replaced both types of transportation, and in time a good railroad net developed which not only served all parts of the area, but also connected it with Saint Louis, Kansas City and other large distributing centers of the north. Two main railroads parallel the coast. The Missouri Pacific extends southwestward from Orange to Brownsville, only a few miles inland from the coast, while the Southern Pacific operates a parallel line about 30 miles farther inland. In addition to these coastal lines, the Kansas City Southern, the Southern Pacific, the Santa Fe, the Burlington, the Missouri Kansas and Texas, and other lines provide excellent rail contacts with inland areas. When the era of highway construction began, the coastal area was not slow in building numerous paved roads to connect all parts of the area, even though this necessitated great expenditures of money in constructing causeways across the many bays. In a sense aviation is of little significance to the heavy industries of the region, since none of the commodities produced are likely to move by air, but the air lines provide fast service between these new plants and allied plants in the north and east for mail and for the transportation of officials and technical experts. Excellent air contacts are maintained at Beaumont, Houston, Corpus Christi, and Brownsville, with Houston and Brownsville serving as international airports.

Water transportation, by barge on the Intracoastal Canal or by ocean steamer, constitutes one of the major factors in the location of industry on the Texas Gulf Coast. Most of this modern water transportation has been developed within the past two or three decades.

Major and Minor Factors in The Location of Industry

Before describing the specific industrial development, it might be well to analyze briefly the Texas Gulf Coast region in relation to the major and minor factors usually considered in the location of manufacturing industries. These factors are:

1. *Proximity to Raw Materials.* For the dominant type of manufacturing in the area—the production of heavy industrial chemicals—the

raw materials are almost limitless. These natural resources will be noted in greater detail in discussing specific industries, but petroleum, natural gas, sulphur, salt, calcium carbonate from oyster shells, and magnesium salts from sea water, form an impressive list. Most raw materials are found in great abundance and should provide ample supplies for many years.

2. *Proximity to Markets.* Although this factor is not so favorable at present since the chief markets for the industrial chemicals and other products are still in the north and northeast, the cheapness of water transportation tends to offset this apparent handicap. In addition, the rapidly growing cities of the Gulf Southwest are providing an ever-increasing market for the manufactured products.

3. *Proximity to Fuel and Power.* Petroleum and natural gas, found in great abundance throughout the region, provide an ideal cheap fuel for industry. This tends to offset the lack of hydro-electric power, an item which cannot be developed because of the flatness of the terrain even though the region has abundant rainfall.

4. *Proximity to Reservoirs of Manpower and Skills.* There is an abundance of unskilled labor (largely Mexican) in the area which provides the necessary manpower for many of the industries, at a wage which originally was decidedly lower than that paid for similar help in the north and east. The wage scale, however, has increased so rapidly of late that this apparent advantage is being nullified. The somewhat limited supply of skilled technicians in the Gulf Southwest can be augmented easily from the outside with a minimum of extra cost. Fortunately, the types of industries being established are highly mechanized and do not require any great number of skilled or unskilled laborers.

5. *Transportation.* Cheapness of water transportation is one of the most important factors in locating the many industries on the Gulf Coast. Highways and railways transport a large share of the commodities to and from the industrial plants, but the fact that this coastal area can use water transportation and hence benefit from cheaper rates gives it a decided advantage. This may be the most outstanding advantage of the area for the location of industry.

6. *Climate.* The subtropical climate makes living conditions cheaper for the workers, and greatly reduces the fuel bill for heating the factories.

7. *Cost of Land.* The cost of land is usually considered a minor factor, and has practically no significance in this region. Factory sites are abundant throughout the area, and most land has a low per-acre value since its only use has been for growing such crops as rice, or for grazing cattle. Industrial sites on deep water, of course, command higher prices, but such locations are still abundant.

8. *The Human Factor.* The human factor which loomed large in the location of many of the older industries in the north and east is of minor significance here, since most plants today are branches of former industries. The human element, however, has played an important role in the over-all development of the industrial region through the energy and enthusiasm of the local people, and through their willingness to invest their great capital reserve derived from the extensive petroleum industry.

9. *Taxation.* Taxation at present is of minor significance here as compared with the more congested industrial areas of the northeast, but it is to be hoped that the region will keep its tax rates reasonably low so that it will continue to attract and not repel industries.

10. *Industrial Water Supply.* This is perhaps the most critical factor in the region. Despite a fairly heavy rainfall and the numerous large rivers which cross the region on their way to the Gulf, the water supply is not sufficient. The types of manufacturing plants being established demand great quantities of industrial waters, and the growing population of the area is consuming constantly increasing amounts. Water shortages may be the factor which will curtail future industrial development unless means of storage of surplus river waters are provided.

Types of Industries

The manufacturing industries of the Texas Gulf Coast Region represent a variety of types, but the major ones may be classified as:

1. *Extractive industries*, such as withdrawing oil and gas, mining sulphur and salt, and dredging oyster shells.

2. *Refineries*, producing gasoline, lubricating oils and similar products from petroleum and natural gas.

3. *Heavy chemical industries*, utilizing petroleum, natural gas, sulphur, salt, or oyster shells as raw materials to produce such items as acetate salts, formaldehyde, and other chemicals from natural gas; soda ash, caustic soda, and chlorine from salt and oyster shells; sulphuric acid from the large supplies of sulphur; synthetic rubber from petroleum; and nylon salts from natural gas.

4. *Metallurgical industries*, extracting magnesium salt from sea water and refining it into metallic magnesium, or producing zinc, tin, iron, and steel from ores or concentrates brought in from a distance.

5. *Wood products industries*, including sawmills, and pulp and paper mills.

6. *Food products industries*, such as rice cleaners and processors, sugar refineries, and the new and ultra modern Corn Products Corpora-

tion at Corpus Christi, manufacturing starch, corn syrup, and corn sugar from milo maize grown in the immediate vicinity.

All these types of industries represent investments running into millions of dollars, some of it private capital invested before World War II, much of it government money spent on war plants now operating under private control, and an increasing amount of it post war investment by private capital from other parts of the United States.

A Tour of the Industries of the Texas Gulf Coast

To discuss the many interesting industries of this region would take more time than this audience would allow, and hence I am forced to limit my talk tonight to a few of the more spectacular ones. These might be considered according to the classification which I have just used, or they could be described in the order that I visited them last summer on an extended tour of the Gulf Coast from Brownsville to Port Arthur. My geographic training urges me to consider the latter method of presentation so I shall take you on an inspection tour of the Gulf Coast region, and I hope that you will be impressed with the magnitude of its industrial development.

We will begin our tour of the Gulf Coast Industrial Area at Brownsville and its new port. While a number of small food processing industries have developed in the Lower Rio Grande Valley, only one large industrial plant has been located in that area. In 1947 Carthage Hydrocol, Inc., built in Brownsville a large refinery and chemical plant at an initial cost of 19 million dollars. This huge industry which sprawls over a 240-acre site is producing gasoline and oxygenated chemicals from petroleum and natural gas. With the completion of the Intracoastal Canal to Brownsville other large industries will locate in the Lower Valley even though at present the area is relatively remote.

Between the Valley and the industrial area surrounding Corpus Christi lies a virtual desert in so far as industrial development is concerned. From Raymondville in the Valley to the outskirts of Kingsville, a distance of about 70 miles, the highway traverses a sand dune country with scattered mesquite and grass vegetation, which is still dominated by large cattle ranches. This area is an important producer of oil and gas, but these products are piped out to the surrounding industrial districts. The first manufacturing development of note is at Bishop, six miles north of Kingsville, where the Celanese Corporation of America has established a 21 million dollar plant. Although this plant lies about 35 miles southwest of Corpus Christi, it is considered a part of that industrial district.

The Bishop Plant of the Celanese Corporation of America

As early as 1932 the Celanese Corporation of America, one of the three largest producers of rayon yarns in the United States, began a research program to develop a process of securing acetic acid from natural gas. The company felt this was essential in order to have an unlimited supply of this basic raw material for its process. By 1941 the process was well enough developed that a small plant was established at Cumberland, Maryland. Then came World War II and a demand by the War Production Board for rapid expansion of the process so as to supply additional products—particularly butadiene for the synthetic rubber and chemical programs. Accordingly, Celanese built with its own money the plant at Bishop, near large supplies of natural gas. Construction was started in 1944 and completed the next year, initial operation began in April, 1945. The war ended before the Bishop plant got into production of butadiene, a major ingredient of synthetic rubber, but with slight alterations the entire establishment was converted to manufacture acetic acid and acetone, the two important chemicals required in the production of cellulose acetate. Since early 1946 production has increased more than four-fold.

Some 200,000 gallons of propane and butane (from natural gas) are required daily to supply the plant with its basic raw materials. These are piped from the large La Gloria Field about 25 miles to the southwest and from the Chicago Corporation's field about 10 miles from Bishop. In addition La Gloria Field furnishes 40 million cubic feet of dry gas (methane) per day for fuel to drive the compressors. Water needed in the process is piped from the Nueces River about 26 miles away. The 550 acre industrial site provides easy access to tidewater shipping at Corpus Christi and ample open space for long range expansion.

Acetic acid and acetone, the two major chemicals produced at Bishop, are consumed entirely by company plants in the manufacture of textiles and plastic which are marketed as Celanese products. In addition a number of other chemical products including formaldehyde, methyl alcohol, and propyl alcohol are sold to outside organizations for the production of textiles, plastics, solvents, anti-freeze mixtures as well as for conversion into other important chemicals. All products are shipped from the Bishop plant in specially designed railroad tank cars, and move either directly by rail to the ultimate consumer or by rail and water.

The Celanese Corporation regards its present operation at Bishop as just a beginning in the field of petroleum and natural gas chemicals. To stimulate further investigation it has established a complete research laboratory at Clarkwood, a few miles west of Corpus Christi which

will devote its entire time to chemical research on petroleum and natural gas.

As one leaves this gigantic, sprawling industrial plant with its glistening fractionating towers and silvery tanks, the thought occurs that the industry is self-operating because of the apparent absence of workers. A relatively few men can run the push-button controls of the plant. However, in its various operations, the Bishop plant employs nearly 900 workers including about 75 technical men.

The Corpus Christi Industrial Area

Corpus Christi, one of the fastest growing cities of the country has developed from about 25,000 persons in 1920 to a city of 125,000 in 1950. This growth has been due in part to the establishment of the large Naval Air Training Center and also to the completion of the deep water port in 1926. But the substantial development of the city is closely linked with the establishment of a number of large industries on the navigable waters of the port so as to take advantage of the natural resources of the Gulf coastal area. Corpus Christi secured the first of these large industries when the Southern Alkali Corporation selected a site on its harbor. Some of the later industries that have been established in the city include:

(1) *Sinclair Refining Company's* refinery, built in 1942 at a cost of more than ten million dollars.

(2) *American Smelting and Refining Company's* zinc refinery completed in 1942 at a cost of nearly six million dollars. This refinery selected its site on the basis of cheap fuel and nearness to tidewater but it brings in most of the zinc ore from northern Mexico by railroad, although some ore comes from overseas by steamship.

(3) *Corn Products Refining Company's* ultra modern plant which was completed in June, 1949 at a cost of 20 million dollars. This industry produces corn starch, corn sugar, and corn syrup from grain sorghums, chiefly milo maize, now being grown extensively on the coastal plain west of Corpus Christi. The plant design is revolutionary in that the factory buildings are constructed without walls. Since the machinery is sealed, walls are not required, and the open sides of the buildings make air conditioning unnecessary. Only during the occasional short cold spells in winter is shelter needed around the areas where the few technicians work, and these places are protected by temporary walls. Being without sides this type of plant design also minimizes the damage from hurricanes since little resistance is offered to storm winds. Although the industry is so new that it has just started production, it is already shipping

corn sugar by boat through the Panama Canal to California to be used in the fruit preserving industries of that state.

(4) *Southern Alkali Corporation's* plant which was located in the Corpus Christi area in 1933 because of the nearness to its raw materials, the abundant supply of fuel, and deep water to provide low freight rates for the transportation of its bulky, heavy chemicals. The original plant which is owned jointly by the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Company and the American Cyanamid Company, two large consumers of soda ash, began operation in September, 1934. At first it produced only soda ash and caustic soda, but in 1937 a chlorine producing unit was added to utilize the great amount of free chlorine released in the chemical operation. In 1940 the nation's defense program increased the demand for alkali and chlorine. Plans were drawn for expanding the facilities to meet these demands and the new additions were completed in 1941 which increased by fifty per cent the output of all three manufactured products.

The industry was located, as has been noted, at its site on Nueces Bay to take advantage of:

- (1) An abundant supply of raw materials, which include
 - (a) *Limestone*, to supply the lime needed in the process, is quarried in south central Texas about 160 miles away. This moves to the plant by rail.
 - (b) *Oyster shells*, a substitute for limestone in the process, are dredged from the bottom of Nueces Bay near by.
 - (c) *Salt*, to provide sodium for soda ash and caustic soda and the chlorine for chlorine gas, is obtained at the Palangana salt dome near Benavides, some 60 miles away and piped in as a brine solution. This flows by gravity to the plant.
 - (d) *Coke and ammonia*, are not available in the area and must be shipped by rail from southern by-product coke plants. Fortunately only small quantities of these raw materials are needed.
 - (e) *Water supply*. Fresh water is piped from the Nueces River, fifteen miles away. For cooling purposes, salt water, taken from nearby coastal waterways are used to the extent of about 50 million gallons a day.
- (2) An abundant supply of natural gas for fuel adjacent to the plant.
- (3) Tidewater to insure cheap freight rates for the bulky manufactured commodities.

A number of other alkali plants have been located in the Gulf Coast

area and some of these are considerably larger than this plant, but Southern Alkali at Corpus Christi will always stand as a monument to the vision of the directors of the two holding companies who had faith in the future growth of the Southwest.

The industrial development of the Corpus Christi area appears to be still in its infancy, but in time many more industries will locate along the deep water-channels of Corpus and Nueces bays to take advantage of the favorable conditions which originally attracted the Southern Alkali Corporation.

The trip northeastward along the "Hug-the-Coast" Highway traverses territory somewhat similar to that between the Valley and Bishop in that grassy prairies and cattle ranches dominate the landscape. Except for about three large industries there is nothing along the entire drive to give any indication of industrial development. Near Rockport a large carbon-black plant disturbs an otherwise peaceful pastoral landscape by belching out heavy columns of dense black smoke. East of Port Lavaca, near the end of one of the long causeways required by this highway to cross the many coastal lagoons, is a huge new plant being built by the Aluminum Company of America at an estimated cost of fifty million dollars. The plant is situated on a 3000 acre tidewater tract which when completed will have its own docking facilities. This will be the first Alcoa plant to use natural gas instead of water power to generate electricity for making aluminum. When completed it will employ about 500 persons.

The road leads on through a number of small towns that derive their income from ranching, some agriculture, or resorts and fishing to the highly industrialized Freeport-Velasco area. A slight detour to the north at Bay City takes one to Newgulf, the location of the main sulphur producing plant of the Texas Gulf Sulphur Company. This is worth visiting as the huge blocks of yellow sulphur lying on the coastal prairie present a colorful picture. Sulphur mining, however, comes under the head of extraction, rather than manufacturing and will not be considered further, but attention must be called to the fact that the abundance of pure sulphur here and at other similar "mounds" on the Gulf Coast have provided one of the basic raw materials for the chemical industry.

At West Columbia another detour should be made to the south to visit the Freeport-Velasco industrial area at the mouth of the Brazos River.

Here, the Dow Chemical Company and the United States Government combined have spent more than 170 million dollars in building a series of plants producing metallic magnesium from seawater, caustic soda and soda ash, styrene plastics, and many other chemical products. The

total investment by the end of December 1947 is shown in the following table:

(F) Dow Chemical Company	(magnesium)	\$22,509,000
(F) Dow Chemical Company	(caustic soda, etc.)	20,154,000
(V) Dow Chemical Company	(styrene)	27,324,000
(V) Dow Chemical Company	(dry chlorine)	35,119,000
(V) Dow Magnesium Company	(magnesium)	61,617,000
(F) Ethyl-Dow Chemical Co.	(ethylene dibromide)	6,016,000

Although much of this represents government capital invested during the war period, and although some of these plants may be placed in "moth-balls" from time to time, there is still a tremendous industrial potential in the area even if only a part of the installations are operating at any one time. To discuss these various plants would take too long, but a brief description will be given of the original magnesium plant at Freeport, where metallic magnesium was first extracted from sea water in large quantities.

The Magnesium Plant of the Dow Chemical Company at Freeport

The Dow Chemical Company of Midland, Michigan, began the production of metallic magnesium on a small scale in 1915. In 1932 the company built a plant at Wilmington, North Carolina, to extract magnesium from sea water, but the site was not favorable. The selection of the site at Freeport was based primarily on the consideration of raw materials. Practically unlimited quantities of sea water, oyster shells, salt, fresh water, sulphur, and natural gas for fuel are found within a radius of thirty miles. Construction began on this plant in April, 1940 and the first magnesium metal was dipped from the cells on January 21, 1941. The original plant was designed for a production capacity of 12,000,000 pounds per year but before it was completed two additions were made which increased the capacity to 36,000,000 pounds. In October 1941 the Defense Plants Corporation built another plant at Velasco with a capacity of 72,000,000 pounds a year. This was operated by the Dow Company and since the war has been purchased by them from the Government.

Since there is only one part of magnesium in 770 parts of raw ocean water, the extraction process requires unusual chemical engineering equipment, methods, and controls to produce metal in large quantities.

The process is briefly described in the November, 1941 issue of *Chemical & Metallurgical Engineering* (pp. 130-133) as follows:

MAGNESIUM FROM SEA WATER

As developed by The Dow Chemical Co. for use in its new plant at Freeport, Texas, the process consists of the following steps: (1) Precipitation of magnesium hydrate from sea water using milk of lime made from oyster shells. (2) After

filtration, the hydrate is converted into magnesium chloride using 10 percent solution of hydrochloric acid. (3) The magnesium chloride solution is concentrated, first in direct-fired evaporators, then on shelf dryers and finally, in a rotary dryer. (4) Flaked magnesium chloride, in practically anhydrous condition, is fed into the cells where it is electrolyzed to produce metallic magnesium of average purity between 99.9 and 99.95 percent, along with byproduct chlorine (which is used to make HCl).

The molten magnesium is dipped from the cells and cast into 18 lb. pigs for ease in handling. In this form it is an exceedingly light (Sp. Gr. 1.74) silver white metal widely used in the magnesium alloys known as Dowmetal, and for imparting hardness, strength and fatigue resistance to various aluminum alloys.

The Freeport plant was located on the inside loop of an old channel of the Brazos River which had been diverted to a new course. Raw sea water was then drawn in through the old channel and discharged into the new channel several miles away after being bled of its magnesium salts.

The chief disadvantage to this location is its exposed nature on the outer coast of Texas. During the War it was vulnerable to possible attacks from the sea, and in the hurricane season each year it is exposed to possible storms. The use of radar to detect hurricanes more than two hundred miles in the Gulf and the development of an elaborate disaster preparedness and relief program has minimized the potential dangers from the latter source.

At Hoskins Mound, a short distance northeast of the Freeport-Velasco area, is located the large sulphur mine of the Freeport Gulf Sulphur Company. This is the chief source of sulphur for the numerous chemical industries operated by Dow in the area.

The Texas City District

Some fifty miles northeast of Freeport, on the shores of Galveston Bay lies the Texas City manufacturing center, which on April 16, 1947 suffered one of the worst industrial disasters in history when two French boats exploded at its docks. The damage, largely to the plant of the Monsanto Chemical Company amounted to millions of dollars and the loss of life exceeded five hundred, including many of Monsanto's technical and scientific personnel and officers.

The Texas City district, one of the most concentrated of the entire Gulf Coast occupies a small area on the inner margin of Galveston Bay some eleven miles from the Gulf. It contains a number of large industrial plants including that of the Carbide and Carbon Chemicals Corporation (\$36,000,000), manufacturing ethyl alcohol, ethyl ether, sulphuric acid, and many other chemicals from hydrocarbons and sulphur; the Pan American Refinery; the Republic Refinery; the Monsanto Chemical Company plant built by the Government at a cost of more than \$20,000,-

000 to produce styrene and other needed war materials and purchased at the close of the war by Monsanto (destroyed by the explosion and later rebuilt and enlarged); and the Longhorn Tin Smelter of the Tin Processing Corporation, built by the Government at a cost of \$8,000,000 and recently enlarged by an addition costing \$2,700,000. Since this is the only tin smelter in the United States, and perhaps the most unique industry on the Gulf Coast, a brief description of this plant seems desirable.

The Longhorn Tin Smelter

About a year before the United States entered World War II, the Government recognized our critical position in regard to tin since the entire supply of that metal came from outside the country—the two chief sources being Bolivia and the East Indies. The tin smelters of the world were located either in southeast Asia or in northwest Europe. Plans were developed rapidly and supplies of tin ore were stock-piled in the United States so that a surplus would be available in the event foreign supplies were cut off. The smelter had to be capable of handling tin-bearing materials varying from high-grade alluvial ores from the East Indies to the poorest concentrates from Bolivia, low in tin and high in impurities. The site for the plant had to be on or near the coast where all materials other than tin ore could be assembled cheaply. Texas City was chosen because of these advantages.

The specific site of the smelter is about three miles inland from navigable water, where land was cheap. This seems peculiar since the ore comes to the plant by steamship, but it is near enough to the water to take advantage of low rates and as the ore must be unloaded onto freight cars before being processed, a three-mile rail haul is of little significance. Since the explosion in 1947 all ore has been unloaded at Galveston and transported eleven miles by rail to the plant. Perhaps it was fortunate that the Longhorn Tin Smelter was not placed on tidewater since it might have been destroyed along with Monsanto.

Other than tin ore, the chief raw materials used by the smelter are natural gas for fuel which is abundant in the area, hydrochloric acid shipped by tank car from Dow Chemical Company at Freeport, and semi-anthracite coal used in the reduction of the ore brought in by rail from Arkansas. The ore comes by boat from Bolivia and from the East Indies. After the Japanese captured Singapore and the adjacent Dutch Islands which at that time produced most of the world's tin and had some of the largest smelters, the ore came almost entirely from Bolivia. With the surrender of Japan, supplies of high grade alluvial tin ore are arriving from the East Indies in constantly increasing quantities so that today a large part of the total ore used by the smelter is secured from that source. The smelter still imports each month about 4500 tons of Bolivian concentrates which average 38 per cent tin together with

a large number of impurities including silver, tungsten, vanadium, and molybdenum oxides. These exist in nuisance quantities only, but the waste from the smelter contains large quantities of reclaimable hydrochloric acid. Originally this waste was dumped into Galveston Bay on the assumption that the tide was sufficient to remove it, but when marine life in the Bay was affected, shrimp and oyster fishermen complained and forced the smelter to impound this waste in large earthen tanks. The new addition to the smelter now being built is designed to reclaim hydrochloric acid from the salts in these tanks. As by-products of this reclamation, small quantities of silver and other metals will be produced.

The smelter is still owned by the United States Government but is being operated by the Tin Processing Corporation, a Netherlands company. After the close of the War, Congress authorized continued operation of this vital industry until July, 1949, but has extended the time again since that date. For a nation that consumes as large a quantity of tin as the United States, and produces practically no tin ore this essential coastal refinery should be maintained at all costs.

One great handicap of the Texas City area is the shortage of industrial waters. The district is attempting to meet this problem, however, by constructing a 2,700,000,000-gallon earthen storage reservoir near by and connecting it to the Brazos River by a canal some thirty miles in length. This will provide ample water for the industries of the area for many years.

The Houston-Baytown Area

The industrial district surrounding the upper end of the Houston Ship Channel is by far the most important of these on the Texas Coast, representing investments of hundreds of millions of dollars. The great city and port of Houston dominates the area but industry spreads along the deep waterway beyond the industrial suburb of Pasadena to La Porte and Baytown.

This industrial area is so enormous that a fair description of it would take as much time as has been consumed thus far. Many types of industries are found here, including a steel mill and a pulp and paper mill. Reasons for location are similar to those previously discussed, but the excellent port facilities of Houston and the proximity of the largest urban center on the Gulf Coast have produced this additional concentration of industry.

For those of you who are fortunate enough to have reservations for the boat trip tomorrow down the Houston Ship Channel, even a listing of the major industries of this area is unnecessary since you will see the development with your own eyes, but for the less fortunate who will be

unable to make the trip, I shall list the chief industrial plants of the Houston-Baytown district. They are:

Champion Paper & Fibre Company, manufacturing pulp, coated paper, turpentine, hydrogen, and caustic soda.

Diamond Alkali Company, making chlorine, caustic soda, muriatic acid and other chemical by-products.

Goodyear Synthetic Rubber Corporation, producing copolymer synthetic rubber.

Humble Oil and Refining Company, producing butane, propane, and gasoline in the Houston plant, and at the large Baytown refinery, these products plus butyl rubber, butadiene, and toluol.

General Tire and Rubber Company at Baytown, manufacturing Buna-S rubber.

Shell Chemical Corporation, producing in its twelve new plants alcohols, chemical solvents, and plastic components.

The Sheffield Steel Corporation producing various chemical by products as well as pig iron and steel.

The A. O. Smith Corporation (under construction) which will fabricate welded steel line-pipe and casing for the oil and gas industries from steel produced by Sheffield.

Many other refineries and chemical plants, too numerous to mention.

Houston is rapidly becoming one of the industrial giants of the country.

The Sabine-Neches Industrial District

The last of the major industrial areas of the Texas Gulf Coast lies along the navigable waters of the lower Neches and Sabine rivers and includes the cities of Beaumont, Orange, Port Neches, and Port Arthur. This district which witnessed in 1901 the initial oil production of the region grew rapidly from that date, but for many years the chief manufacturing was the production of lumber and other wood products from the East Texas forests. The rise of the petroleum industry and the manufacture of many types of chemicals from petroleum and natural gas has lead to an industrial development that makes this a close rival of the Houston-Baytown district. The variety of industries is not so great as found around Houston, but the plants are comparable in size. Because of the limit of time, however, we must again content ourselves with a mere listing of major industries. They are:

AT BEAUMONT

The Magnolia Petroleum Refinery, producing gasoline, lubricating oils and toluol.

Socony Paint Products Company, manufacturing paints and varnishes.

Southern Acid and Sulphur Company, producing sulphuric acid.

AT ORANGE

Orange Pulp & Paper Company, making kraft paper and pulp.

E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Company (a new \$98,000,000 plant), producing nylon salts from hydrocarbons for the synthetic textile industry.

AT PORT NECHES

The Neches Butane Products Company, a \$60,000,000 Government built plant, produces butadiene for

- (a) The Firestone Tire & Rubber Company, making synthetic rubber, and
 - (b) The B. F. Goodrich Chemical Company, producing synthetic rubber.
- The Jefferson Chemical Company, a \$22,000,000 plant, producing ethylene oxide and ethylene glycol from hydrocarbons.

AT PORT ARTHUR

- The Atlantic Refining Company,
- The Gulf Oil Corporation Refinery,
- The Texas Company Refinery, three of the largest in the country.

By crossing the Sabine River into Louisiana, this survey could be continued with few interruptions through the Lake Charles district to Baton Rouge and New Orleans, but we must terminate our industrial tour. It is to be hoped that this very sketchy description has been of some interest to all of you living within the Gulf Southwest and that as time permits you will become better acquainted with this rapidly growing industrial region.

In addition to deep water, the Gulf coast offers many advantages to certain classes of industry. As an industrial region during times of peace it is superior in some respects to either the Atlantic Coast or the Pacific Coast of the United States, but in times of war it has the additional advantage of being the most remote and hence the least vulnerable of our three coastal areas from an attack by a possible trans-polar enemy.

What Are Our Goals in Agriculture?

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It is hard to know what are, or what have been our goals for agriculture. Why should this be so? In the main, these goals have been so diverse since the nation's founding that it is difficult to discern the thread that ties the family homestead of the frontiers to the now fully developed and sometimes overcapitalized farm plant which with few exceptions receives public subsidies in direct proportion to its volume of production. To say in one and the same breath that our early goal was to exploit land, to settle it, to get it into private hands and use as quickly as possible, and that on the other hand, our goal was to have land secure in ownership and operation by the farmer and his family—is like shattering a pleasant dream. Yet we know that agricultural goals of the past have been so interwoven with conflicts and contradictions that it sometimes appears that only by the grace of God are we left with a substantial soil resource—largely in the hands of farm people. More often than not, says one authority, agricultural policy objectives are inconsistent one with another.¹ He could have continued by saying that never have the means used in reaching goals been more than inconsistent.

—1—

Specifically, at any one time goals for agriculture might well be interpreted as all things to all men. They are necessarily compromises. For instance, we know that the public goal of alienation and settlement of public lands, the guiding objectives of land policy from 1800 to 1890, had one meaning to the railroads, land sharks, and speculators, that it had quite a contrasting meaning to the settler who plodded his way westward seeking new and greater opportunity through landed security, and yet a third meaning to the public. To the first mentioned, it often meant a bonanza and showers of great fortune which sometimes came with so little effort and risk that to the student of the period, it now seems almost a national disgrace. To the settler it meant the vision of security in a new home—one that could be his without encumbrance though it might mean days and months of sweating toil to bring virgin acres to production. To the public it meant the swift and vigorous expansion of a nation, the early establishment of boundaries that warned would-be aggressors, and

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¹Theodore W. Schultz, *Production and Welfare of Agriculture*, The MacMillan Co. 1949.

the translation of our belief in equal opportunity into a semblance of economic reality.

Today, and nearer to us, we see the readily accepted goal of conservation, certainly with two or more distinct meanings—to some, it means soil saving or the stopping of erosion, while to the farmer and close student it means the balancing of costs and returns between two systems of farming. To the public, still other connotations may be more expressive—the national interest of survival, the production of sufficient food and fibre for a growing population, and the aesthetic beauty of a green land.

Yes, our goals become symbols of agreement which promise all things to all men.

—2—

We might inquire into how we arrived at goals that apparently have been fraught with inconsistent meanings. Has it been because our agricultural needs at any one time have been outmoded by economic change and the rise of new problems? This may be part of the reason—in other words, our objectives and goals lag behind the need for new emphasis and new directions in the way we should go. However, I do not believe that this is the primary reason,

Apparently our goals had their birth primarily in the traditional beliefs associated with tilling the soil. By this, I mean those ideas which are unreflectively accepted as fundamental principles in agriculture. For example, the farmer has been used as the symbol of self-reliance throughout our history, perhaps justly so at times. However, interdependence of all groups has become such a fact that it becomes more difficult to label one group more self-reliant than any other.

The farmer has been called the "steward of the soil." Yet today we know that other groups are as responsible for and therefore as interested in land use and misuse as the farmer.

These and other widely held beliefs relative to farming at times may have been in conflict one with another, or they may be entirely outmoded at present if ever true. Just the same, they are ingrained beliefs and still are repeated in arriving at goals for agriculture.

—3—

Out of the patterns of traditions we have believed relative to agriculture, we are able to find one thread which apparently has been continuous throughout our policy formation. This tie, perhaps the only one that has not been severed since frontier settlement times, is the *family farm*. To be sure, a great deal of fancy has been erected about this goal which is in reality only a means to an end. I have been unable to unearth the

first mention of the family farm in the formation of the nation's land objectives. But certainly, it found some of its first and most eloquent expression in the works of Thomas Jefferson. If he did not first use the term he surely was responsible for the early nurture of it. The Land Ordinance of 1785 written by Jefferson, determined the path of public land disposition in which the chief factor was to be and has been the family farm.

So far as I am concerned, a primary drawback of the family farm goal has been its association with agrarianism, or the goal of widely dispersed small holdings among the farm population—subsistence farming if you please. To this day, try as we may, we have been unable to separate the one from the other, that is, the subsistence holdings idea from the family farm idea. Only recently the family farm was discussed in an article under the title, "Do We Want Family-Sized Farms?"²⁴ The whole argument of the writer against the family farm is based on his concept of that farm as a *subsistence unit*. He indicates 40 acres or so as a family farm. Then he asks, "Would the family farm make enough to provide a decent living for the family and at the same time pay off the debt . . .?" Of course, the answer is *No*. But we cannot accept his definition of a family farm which, in his concept, boils down to a subsistence system for farm people.

In this respect we must recognize the existing confusion relative to the concept of a family farm. Too often it is associated with a definite size in acres—such as the 40-acre subsistence unit above. As a concept, the family farm embraces more than a mere acreage figure. It is an expression of an *ideal*, — almost a philosophy of agriculture. The accepted meaning of the family farm among students may be summarized about as follows: (a) management is vested primarily in the farm family, (b) the resource base, in terms of land, capital and technology is large enough to employ the labor of the family efficiently, and to return an income that will allow an acceptable level of living measured by modern standards, and (c) labor is furnished primarily by the farm family, but supplementary hired labor may be necessary at peak work periods or during certain phases of the family cycle. These are the essential ideas in the concept of the family farm.²⁵ They are not concerned with acreage as such. Neither do the ideas approach subsistence. Thus, a broad general class of units would qualify as family farms. From this general definition it is fairly easy to point out those units which would not so qualify.

²⁴"Do We Want Family-Sized Farms?" *Farm Policy Forum*, Iowa State College Press, Ames, Iowa, Vol. 3, No. 3, March 1950, pp. 21-23.

²⁵For this definition in detail and further discussion of the family farm concept see *Family Farm Policy*, edited by Joseph Ackerman and Marshall Harris, University of Chicago Press, 1947.

Furthermore, in attempting to separate subsistence from family units, we may have been in error in thinking that the Jeffersonian land objective was limited strictly to subsistence farming. For example, we have these words of a family farmer written in Jefferson's time:

"At this time, my farm gave me and my whole family a good living on the produce of it; and left me, one year with another, one hundred and fifty silver dollars, for I have never spent more than ten dollars a year, which was for salt, nails and the like. Nothing to wear, eat, or drink, was purchased, as my farm provided all. With this saving, I put money to interest, bought cattle, fatted and sold them, and made great profit."

More than subsistence is found here. These words are akin to our conception of what the family farm is as we think of it today.

Are there conflicts among programs supposed to encourage the family farm? We must admit that although the family farm goal dates from the beginning of our official land policy, its attainment has not been too well realized. Conflicts in programs to achieve the goal, in some instances have aggravated the problem. For instance, how far can we say that our farm credit programs have operated to preserve and promote the family farm? How far do our price support programs promote this objective? The admixture of agrarianism and family farming has attempted to preserve subsistence small holdings on the one hand, while proposedly promoting family farms on the other. Although the goal of the family farm has been a constant and persistent one, its path has been tortuous and perhaps has had reversals at times.

-4-

In conclusion, of one thing we may be certain. Agriculture can no longer have its goals, *per se*. Perhaps no longer can traditions and customs be depended upon to arrive at goals. Almost any goal followed now will have great impact throughout the economy and upon the total population. Goals acceptable to the total population must become a part of agricultural objectives. They must be forged in the crucible into which has been poured the interdependent qualities that truly exist among the various groups in the economy, and therefore must be acceptable to the majority.

The family farm as a means is one of the basic concepts of our goals for land that is acceptable to the urban as well as to the rural dweller. It is a means to a desired end—a means through which the greatest number of farm people may live at a level believed desirable in modern times. Yet, the family farm may have a decided claim as a distinct goal, or an end in itself—it still remains the outstanding example of individual

⁴Quoted in *Farming and Democracy*, Whitney A. Griswold, Harcourt, Brace & Co. New York, 1948, p. 136.

economic enterprise. And with all its modern technology it has preserved the dignity of the individual in the productive process. For these reasons, if for no other, the nation, rural and urban alike, might well hesitate long and consider thoroughly before casting aside the family farm objective in favor of the illusory efficiency of the "factories in the field" on the one hand, or the low level of living associated with subsistence farming for the unemployed on the other.

Current Trends and a Look at the Future of Agriculture in the West South Central Region¹

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In an attempt to visualize what agriculture in the West South Central states will be like in the future, we may begin with the assumption that it will resemble the present in general appearance. There will be bulges here and depressions there, but the traveler will still be able to recognize the sugarcane, the rice, the wheat, the grazing or the vegetable districts. There will be changes in the relative size of enterprises, some farms will add new enterprises, farm practices will be improved, capital inputs per acre will increase, labor inputs per acre will decline and technological changes will continue to increase the efficiency in agriculture, but in most cases, the row crops that are dominant now will continue to be much in evidence in the future.

Although past and current trends cast their shadows toward the future, preciseness regarding the changes that are to come or the rate at which they will occur, should not be taken too seriously, since not all of the facts regarding events or conditions which may effect economic response in the future are known at any point in time. Nevertheless, giving some thought to where we are going should help to sharpen our thinking with regard to trends that are underway.

For the general discussion on current trends and "A Look Ahead," attention is directed to the following points:

1. Trends in cash incomes from crops and livestock;
2. The trend of employment on farms; and
3. Factors related to change in the size and number of farm operating units.

1. Trends in Cash Incomes from Crops and Livestock

In the West South Central Area, 59 per cent of the cash receipts from marketings were from crops during the five-year period 1944 through 1948. During the five-year period beginning in 1924, the marketing of crops accounted for 76 per cent of the receipts from marketings (Table 1). Comparing the two time periods, the receipts from crops sold declined 17 per cent and receipts from livestock and livestock products increased in a like amount. This means that the livestock enterprises have

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¹The states included in the region are Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, Oklahoma and Texas.

Table 1

*Percentage of cash receipts from farm marketings by product
in five mid-southern states, 1924-1948¹*

COMMODITY	PERCENT OF RECEIPTS BY PRODUCT DURING				
	1924-28	1929-33	1934-38	1939-43	1944-48
1. All livestock and Crops	100.000	100.000	100.000	100.000	100.000
2. Livestock and L. S. products	23.620	31.509	34.776	42.335	41.182*
a. Dairy products	4.939	8.583	8.580	8.318	7.271*
b. Cattle and calves	8.817	10.654	12.898	16.198	18.277*
c. Hogs	2.854	3.090	3.821	5.865	5.088*
d. Chickens	1.614	2.129	1.553	2.538	2.683
e. Eggs	3.262	3.837	3.582	4.668	4.443
f. Turkeys in "Other"		0.898	0.874	0.870	0.722
g. Other	2.134	2.318	3.468	3.878	2.698
3. Crops	76.380	68.491	65.224	57.665	58.818
3a. Field Crops	73.359	64.801	61.671	54.207	55.166
a. Cotton lint	54.150	44.576	39.024	30.778	27.216
b. Cottonseed	5.947	5.006	6.419	5.493	4.544
c. Wheat	4.600	4.386	4.615	4.146	7.964*
d. Rice	1.982	2.249	2.607	3.548	3.548*
e. Sugarcane for sugar	0.405	0.912	1.334	1.044	0.924
f. Sugarcane for sirup	0.237	0.311	0.344	0.252	0.222
g. Corn	1.095	0.950	0.872	1.217	1.197
h. Oats	0.522	0.391	0.438	0.460	0.693
i. Hay	0.494	0.543	0.478	0.450	0.536
j. Sweet potatoes	0.455	0.618	0.669	0.545	0.574
k. Potatoes	0.385	0.576	0.465	0.512	0.358
l. Peanuts	0.139	0.243	0.276	0.850	1.181*
m. Other	2.948	4.040	4.130	4.912	6.209
3b. Fruits and tree nuts	1.623	2.176	2.142	2.417	2.527
a. Oranges	0.027	0.102	0.191	0.281	0.302*
b. Grapefruit	0.042	0.229	0.410	0.735	0.742*
c. Pecans	0.344	0.337	0.284	0.396	0.416
d. Peaches	0.274	0.233	0.316	0.285	0.337
e. Strawberries	0.527	0.839	0.564	0.464	0.406
f. Other	0.409	0.436	0.377	0.256	0.324
3c. Other products	1.398	1.514	1.411	1.041	1.125
a. Forest	0.889	0.912	0.873	0.586	0.741
b. Greenhouse and nursery	0.509	0.602	0.538	0.455	0.384

¹Bureau of Agricultural Economics. States included are: Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and Texas.

increased in relative importance as a source of cash income, and the cash crops, especially cotton, have declined. Much of the land taken out of cotton and other cash crops is now producing pasture, forage crops and feed grains that are marketed through the livestock.

The data indicate that rice, peanuts, oranges and grapefruit have made important proportional gains since 1924 as a source of cash income in the region, while cotton lint declined from 54 per cent to 27 per cent. In the livestock enterprises, beef cattle, calves, and hogs have trended upward during most of the period from 1924 to 1948.

As to the relationship which will exist between the livestock and crop enterprises as sources of cash farm income during the next 50 years, the pertinent factors seem to favor the view that there will be further expansion in the relative importance of livestock. If I were to hazard a guess as to future trends, I would say livestock and livestock products within 25 years will be equal to crops as a source of cash receipts from marketings, provided we do not have another major war.

At the present time, the expansion of livestock numbers is limited by available pasture and feed resources. Governmental controls over the amount of land that can be planted in crops will provide additional acres that will be available for producing forage and grain crops, and thousands of additional acres both in farms and not in farms are available for development into improved pastures. The growing interest in quality livestock, better feeding, and management practices will result in increased returns from livestock even if numbers were not increased. There is some evidence that people will shortly be able to purchase more livestock products which should help to sustain the per unit exchange value of the anticipated increase in volume of production. In a recent statement, President Truman indicated that by 1954 family incomes may be increased by \$1000. If so, the demand for meat and dairy products will increase.

Before leaving the discussion of cash receipts from marketings, I should like to briefly direct attention to the data in tables 2 and 3. The data indicate that livestock and livestock products in the United States have grown in relative importance since the 1924-1928 period as a source of cash income, but the percentage change has not been equal to the increase in the West South Central area. The data indicate that the total cash receipts from marketings increased in the nation as a whole at a slightly more rapid rate during the war years than they did in the South. Total marketing receipts in this area during the years 1934 to 1938 were 13.5 per cent of the total for the nation and during the five-year period ending in 1948, they were 12.6 per cent.

Table 2

Cash Receipts From Farm Marketings for U. S., 1924-1948
(Receipts in Thousands of Dollars)

YEAR	LIVESTOCK AND LIVESTOCK PRODUCTS		CROPS		TOTAL LIVESTOCK AND CROPS	
	RECEIPTS	% OF TOTAL	RECEIPTS	% OF TOTAL	RECEIPTS	% OF TOTAL
1924-28	5,515,291	51.4	5,206,194	48.6	10,721,485	100.0
1929-33	4,158,086	56.6	3,194,196	43.4	7,352,282	100.0
1934-38	4,310,221	56.2	3,354,317	43.8	7,664,538	100.0
1939-43	7,234,157	58.3	5,173,019	41.7	12,407,176	100.0
1944-48	14,114,600	55.4	11,346,000	44.6	25,460,600	100.0

Table 3

*Cash Receipts From Farm Marketings in Five Mid-Southern
States Expressed As a Percentage of Receipts for
Continental United States, 1924-1948*
(Receipts in Thousands of Dollars)

YEAR	LIVESTOCK AND LIVESTOCK PRODUCTS		CROPS		TOTAL LIVESTOCK AND CROPS	
	RECEIPTS	% OF TOTAL	RECEIPTS	% OF TOTAL	RECEIPTS	% OF TOTAL
1924-28	390,169.4	7.1	1,261,633.2	24.2	1,651,802.6	15.4
1929-33	306,552.8	7.4	666,367.0	20.9	972,919.8	13.2
1934-38	358,953.8	8.3	673,233.4	20.1	1,032,187.2	13.5
1939-43	679,492.6	9.4	925,557.6	17.9	1,605,050.2	12.9
1944-48	1,325,178.0	9.4	1,892,718.6	16.7	3,217,896.6	12.6

Table 4

*Gainfully Employed Workers, Fourteen Years Old and Over,
Five Mid-Southern States, 1940*

STATE	TOTAL EMPLOYED IN		PERCENTAGE IN AGRICULTURE
	ALL OCCUPATIONS	AGRICULTURE	
Louisiana	771,142	248,696	32.2
Arkansas	583,944	300,071	51.4
Mississippi	727,455	419,705	57.7
Oklahoma	658,739	218,130	33.1
Texas	2,138,355	636,416	29.8
Total	4,879,635	1,823,018	37.4

2. *The Trend of Employment in Agriculture*

Data on employment show that the percentage of employed persons needed to produce all the food, fiber and vegetable oils wanted has been declining for many years. The occupations censuses for the United States show there were four million more persons gainfully employed in agriculture in 1910 than in 1940. During the same 30 years, there was a decrease of 334,743 in the number of persons employed in agriculture in Louisiana, and the percentage of employed persons in agriculture declined from 51.5 per cent to 32.5 per cent.

In 1940, 51.4 per cent of the gainfully employed persons in Arkansas were in agriculture, 57.7 per cent in Mississippi, 33.1 per cent in Oklahoma and 29.8 per cent in Texas. For the West South Central area as a whole, 37.4 per cent of the employed people were in agriculture (Table 4). The indications are that the percentage of gainfully employed persons in agriculture will be less in the future than it is now. One person's estimate of what the percentage will be by the end of this century may be as good as any other. My estimate for the West South Central area is that about 23 per cent of the people employed in all occupations will be in agriculture by the end of the next half century. There is objective evidence that non-agricultural industry is increasing in the mid-south, and especially in Louisiana and Texas considerable additional expansion is anticipated during the next 50 years. Even if the absolute number of persons in agriculture should not decline more than 10 per cent, the relative percentage would decline more than this, due to the increase in employment in non-farm occupations.

As capital is substituted for labor and labor saving practices are adopted, less labor will be needed in farming. The rate at which workers not needed on farms will leave the farms on account of increased efficiency in production will depend upon the availability of non-farm jobs that are open to them at attractive wages. The rate that capital equipment will be substituted for labor on farms will vary with the price level for farm products and the availability of seasonal labor at wages that farm employers regard as reasonable.

With respect to technological advances, there seems to be general agreement that further discoveries will increase the output of farm products per unit of labor. The millions of dollars used to support research in every science related to agriculture are fairly sure to increase the present fund of knowledge and result in discoveries and inventions that will increase efficiency in agriculture. More effective insect killers and treatments for the control of livestock and plant diseases would help to increase production per man. It is reported that scientists in the United States Department of Agriculture have made progress on "combined fertilizer and insect killer" that could be applied in a single opera-

tion. Insects feeding on plants treated with the combined product would be destroyed and later the bug killer material would break down into fertilizer. Improvements like hybrid corn seed may be extended to other kinds of seed.

3. *Trend in the Size and Number of Farms*

The trend in the number of acres needed for an economic farm unit will be upward for several years. This will be true more especially in those districts that have a predominance of family farms and where there is a surplus of production at the support price level of crops that are important as a direct source of cash income. There are resistances to an increase in the size of farms and also to the acquisition of labor saving machines and mechanical power. Because of these resistances, the actual consolidation of farming units and the adoption of feasible mechanized equipment to the fullest degree possible will require many years for completion. The rate at which further mechanization will take place and also the rate that farm units will increase in size, depends in part on the alternative opportunities available to rural people for employment in other occupations.

Even if the political economy were to leave farmers free to control the choice and size of enterprises, there would be the need in many districts of the region for increasing the production per person employed in agriculture in order to provide returns to labor and management more nearly equal to those of farmers in some other regions. More acres per farm worker, the adoption of labor saving devices and the substitution of capital input for labor are among the more important means to be used to increase the income per farm and per worker.

The total number of census farms in the region decreased 307,895 from 1935 to 1945. A large part of this change in the number of farms is accounted for by the reduction in sharecropper farms. For illustration in Louisiana 25,000 of the 50,000 sharecroppers counted in 1935 disappeared by 1945. It seems likely that sharecropper farms will have so nearly disappeared by the year 2000 that only stories of historical interest can be written about them. As farms are counted in the Census, I would not expect to see a permanent further decrease in the number of farms in the region. The number of full-time farming units may decline, but there will be an off-setting increase in part-time farms and rural homes counted as farms.

The Selective Service Appeal Board*

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During World War II the selection of men for military service and, by implication, the designation of those who would retain their civilian status was the responsibility of committees of uncompensated civilian volunteers, the Local Boards of the Selective Service System.¹ Selection was made within a framework of regulation prescribed by the administrator of the System, but the Local Boards did have a considerable legally-designated area of authority.² Classification of the registrants into the various Selective Service classes was the responsibility of the Local Boards, subject to review by the designated Appeal Boards, and no administrators of the System (nor any other governmental official, for that matter) had the authority to order a registrant either inducted into or deferred from military service.³

The structure of the Selective Service System with the legally-designated area of authority of the Local Boards has one point of obvious vulnerability to criticism. Through variations in the interpretations of the regulations, through variations in the interpretations of the intent of the supervisors, through lack of a common body of precedents on which interpretations could be based, through the conscious or unconscious exercise of bias, through variations in the population composition of the Local Board areas, or for other reasons, Local Boards in the same geographical area might accord quite different treatment to registrants whose status with Selective Service was the same or generally similar. Immediately adjacent Boards might have quite different policies or procedures with reference to the classification of the fathers of dependent children, of skilled and semi-skilled workers, or any one of a number of other dependency or occupational categories. Registrants working side by

*The research on which this paper is based was made possible by a Demobilization Award of the Social Science Research Council. The study was approved by the National Headquarters of the Selective Service System, but the views expressed are the author's and are not necessarily endorsed by the administrators of the System.

¹For a fuller discussion of the operation of the Local Boards and an analysis of the place of these Boards in the structure of the System, see Donald D. Stewart, *Local Board: A Study of the Place of Volunteer Participation in a Bureaucratic Organization* (An unpublished doctoral dissertation on file in the library of Columbia University.)

²The authority of the Local Boards is defined in Section 10 (a) (2) of the Selective Service and Training Act of 1940. See *Selective Service in Peacetime: First Report of the Director of Selective Service* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942) page 331.

³The various State Directors for Selective Service had the authority to order a "stay of induction," i.e., a temporary deferment. It might be noted that no registrant with Selective Service was considered to be permanently exempted from military service, although many never had more than one Selective Service classification.

side at identical tasks might be accorded quite different treatment by their respective Local Boards. The fathers of dependent children living in one section of a city might be inducted while those living in another section of the same city were deferred from service because of their dependency status.⁴

Congressional, journalistic, and other critics of the operation of the System (and sometimes of conscription, generally) utilized examples of the more obvious discrepancies of this sort as the basis for much of their criticism.⁵ Publicly, the administrators of the System discounted the significance of such variations with the claim that they were few in number and "minor" in importance, but the volume and persistence of such criticism constituted a continuing administrative problem of the System.⁶

The demands of the armed forces, industry, and agriculture during the war-time period were not an uncomplicated "single track" drain on the manpower supply.⁷ The nature as well as the size of these demands varied from one period to another, from one geographical area to another, and from one industry to another. During the first phase of the operation of the System, the administrators were committed in policy to the recognition of the priority of dependency obligations as a basis for deferment from military service. Later the emphasis was on the building of stockpiles of materials and equipment for the projected major assaults and to meet the Lend-Lease commitments. Selective Service registrants with the necessary occupational skills were deferred to help in filling these needs. During the last stage of the war, the emphasis of the operation of the System shifted to the induction of those younger regis-

⁴The major duty of the Local Boards, in the final analysis, was the presentation at the induction station of the periodically prescribed number of physically-fit, eligible men. During the earlier autonomous period of operation, the methods of meeting these "calls" were defined in only general terms by the regulations. See, Stewart, *op. cit.*, pages 83-88.

⁵For a summary of the common criticisms of this aspect of the operation of the System see *Hearing Before Committee on Military Affairs in United States Senate—78th Congress—First Session on S.763—A Bill exempting certain married men who have children from liability under Selective Service Act, as amended—May 5 September 15, 16, 17, 20, 22 23, 1943—Revised and consolidated printing* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943).

⁶*Selective Service in Wartime: Second Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) page 171.

⁷The reader who is interested in the history of the war-time manpower problem, presented from the viewpoint of the administrators of the Selective Service System, is referred to the four volume history of the organization. *Selective Service in Peacetime: First Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942), *Selective Service in Wartime: Second Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943), *Selective Service as the Tide of War Turns: Third Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945), *Selective Service and Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948).

trants who were best qualified physically to carry on the mobile, aggressive type of warfare which developed.⁹

The demands created by varying industrial and agricultural conditions were even more complex. For example, the Lend-Lease commitments and the successful submarine warfare of the Axis powers placed an early stress on the production of merchant vessels and other ships. The change of the shipbuilding industry from an almost moribund state to one of intense activity created problems for the administrators of the System.¹⁰ High wages and other incentives drew thousands of registrants from farms to shipyards and other industrial installations with resultant serious hampering of agricultural production and the threat of food shortages.¹⁰ The administrators were expected to devise methods of stemming, if not of completely stopping, this urbanward migration.¹¹ The instances of this order were varied and numerous enough without the inclusion of what may be considered to be individual differences, i. e., the differences which were a product of the possible permutations of the dependency status, the occupational skills and experience, the physical condition, and the age of the registrants. To summarize, the solution of the administrative problems which developed necessitated frequent changes in policy and procedure which, in turn, necessitated the development of an organization with a high degree of flexibility and adaptability which would be, at the same time, sufficiently uniform in operation to avoid discrimination or the appearance of discrimination. There were a number of devices which could be utilized to meet this problem. One of the more important was the system of Appeal Boards, i. e., the area Appeal Boards and the Presidential Appeal Board.

The Appeal Boards were designed primarily as reviewing groups whose purpose was to determine whether or not the Local Boards had correctly interpreted the regulations as applied to the case of a particular registrant. The nuances and variations in dependency obligation and occupational status which were considered in the classification of Selective Service registrants were sometimes not susceptible to exact regulatory description; it was expected that the Appeal Boards would pass on the rulings of the Local Boards in those cases which were marginal. To

⁹*Selective Service in Wartime: Second Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) Chapter IX, "War Production: Essential Industry," pages 155-180.

¹⁰*Selective Service as the Tide of War Turns: Third Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) page 72.

¹¹*Ibid.*, pages 103-105.

¹²The administrators of the System were assisted in the solution of this problem by the enactment of the so called "Tydings' Amendment" to the Act which provided that agricultural workers who had been deferred from military service on an occupational basis could be inducted into the armed forces if, for any reason, they left their employment. *Ibid.*, page 110.

eliminate, so far as possible, personal considerations in their decisions, the rulings of the Appeal Boards were based on the evaluation of written reports or records, i.e., in the event of an appeal neither the appellant nor the Local Board members appeared in person before the Appeal Board.¹³

On August 31, 1945 there were 243 Appeal Boards or one for approximately each 600,000 of the population with a minimum of one for each state.¹⁴ Assisting groups had been formed, and at that time there were 262 of these "panels."¹⁵ The area Appeal Board members were selected from lists submitted to the various state governors by the State Directors for Selective Service, subject to the approval of the President.¹⁶ There were five members to each Board, and some attempt was made to have them representative of major groups and interests in the area.¹⁷ For example, although Local Board members were predominantly middleclass business and professional men, in urban industrialized areas one representative of organized labor was usually included on the Appeal Board and in rural areas there was usually one farmer.¹⁸ The President delegated his authority to judge appeals to a Presidential Appeal Board for Selective Service.¹⁹ This group was composed of officers of the military who had their offices with the National Headquarters of the System in Washington, although they were, at least technically, independent of the National Headquarters. The National Director of Selective Service was also the chairman of the Presidential Appeal Board.²⁰

From the beginning of the period of operation of the System in October, 1940, until December 31, 1945 a total of 4,359,327 appeals were handled by all area Appeal Boards.²¹ During the peak year of 1943 the mean number of appeals for each Local Board was 92, or one for

¹³*Selective Service Regulations, Second Edition* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945) Section 627.13 (a)

¹⁴*Selective Service and Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) page 133.

¹⁵*Ibid.*, page 133.

¹⁶The Selective Service Act originally provided that all Appeal Board members must be civilians, but later this was amended to permit military personnel to serve with the Presidential Appeal Board. *Selective Service as the Tide of War Turns: Third Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) page 145.

¹⁷The Selective Service Regulations made some provision for such "representativeness." *Selective Service Regulations, Second Edition* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) Section 603.22.

¹⁸For a fuller discussion of the personnel of the appeal Boards, see Stewart, *op. cit.*, pages 38-45.

¹⁹*Selective Service as the Tide of War Turns: Third Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) page 150.

²⁰*Ibid.*, pages 150-153.

²¹*Selective Service and Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) page 134.

each six inductions.²⁴ Public Law 197 required that certain categories of occupational deferments must be reviewed by the area Appeal Boards, and these mandatory reviews constituted 71 per cent of the total.²⁵ The balance were initiated by the registrants, their employers, and others.

During the earliest period of operation the basis of most appeals was some question of dependency status, but after the effective abolition of deferment from military service on a dependency basis the emphasis shifted to appeals with an occupational basis.²⁶ Although the trend in the number of appeals fluctuated, there was a gradual, steady increase in the number of appeals to the area Appeal Boards from 1940 through 1945.²⁷ The appeals to the Presidential Appeal Board reached a peak in 1943.²⁸ The rulings of the Local Boards were sustained in about 65 per cent of the cases considered by the area Appeal Boards, and in approximately the same number of cases taken from the area Appeal Boards to the Presidential Appeal Boards the decisions of the former were sustained.²⁹

The patent purpose of the Appeal Board was the protection of the individual registrant from discriminatory judgments by the Local Board members. The Selective Service Regulations provided that "in classifying a registrant there shall be no discrimination for or against him because of his race, creed or color, or because of his membership or activity in any labor, political, religious or other organization. Each registrant shall receive equal and fair justice."³⁰ Any registrant who was dissatisfied with his Local Board classification could, within ten days of the receipt of the notice of classification, appeal to his area Appeal Board for a reclassification. If dissatisfied with the action of the area Appeal Board, the registrant could then appeal his case to the President or, more properly,

²⁴From an unpublished monograph prepared by the Research and Statistics Branch of the National Headquarters.

²⁵The general purpose of these mandatory reviews was to make a greater number of "non-fathers" available for military service. *Selective Service and Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) pages 136-137. The major concern of this paper is with the "non-mandatory" appeals, and, unless otherwise specified, the term "appeal" will refer to such actions.

²⁶*Selective Service in Wartime: Second Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943) page 42.

²⁷*Selective Service and Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) page 134.

²⁸*Ibid.*, page 138.

²⁹These figures are necessarily approximate because of the considerable number of cases presented to the Appeals Boards in which no action was taken, as in those cases where a change in regulations or the status of the registrants obviated the need for Appeal Board action. It might be noted that the kind of cases in which the Local Boards were most apt to be "reversed" were those involving conscientious objectors, i.e., in those cases where the Local Boards ordered the objector inducted and he was deferred by Appeal Board action. *Ibid.*, page 137.

³⁰*Selective Service Regulations, Second Edition* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945) Section 623.1 (c).

to the Presidential Appeal Board.²⁷ Although there were differences in the facilities provided, the registrants, their families, their employers, and other interested persons were usually informed of the registrants' right of appeal from the decisions of the Local Boards, and some assistance was provided by all Boards in the preparation of appeals.²⁸

However, appeals taken by the registrant on his own behalf did not constitute more than 25 per cent of those to the area Appeal Boards, nor more than ten per cent of those to the Presidential Appeal Board.²⁹ Approximately 65 per cent of all appeals to the area Appeal Boards were initiated by employers on behalf of militarily-eligible employees as were approximately 15 per cent of the appeals to the Presidential Appeal Board.³⁰ Of somewhat more significance to the thesis of this paper, however, was the fact that appeals could be initiated by members of the administrative staff, i.e., by or on behalf of the various State Directors or the National Director. Throughout the period of operation approximately five per cent of the appeals to the area Appeal Board were made by or on behalf of the various State Directors and about one-tenth of one per cent by or on behalf of the National Director.³¹ Of the appeals to the Presidential Appeal Board, 69 per cent were initiated by the State Directors and two per cent by the National Director.³²

The authority to appeal the decision of the Local Boards provided the administrators with a method of standardizing the operation of the Boards. A brief description of one instance—the implementation of the Replacement Schedule Plan—will illustrate the nature of this authority.³³ In general outline, this Plan provided that the administrators of the State

²⁷If the decision of the area Appeal Board was unanimous, there could be no appeal to the Presidential Appeal Board. *Selective Service in Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) page 133.

²⁸Although the appeal procedure was comparatively simple, registrants sometimes needed assistance for the most effective presentation of their cases. To provide such assistance there was attached to each Local Board one or more Government Appeal Agents. These Agents were uncompensated volunteers, usually local attorneys. The amount of the assistance they provided was dependent upon their interest in the activities of the Local Board, but they were usually available for advice. The Local Boards' compensated clerical personnel might provide assistance in the preparation of an appeal, and Local Board members sometimes helped.

²⁹*Selective Service in Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) page 135.

³⁰*Ibid.*, page 135.

³¹These include only the "non-mandatory" appeals. *Ibid.*, page 135.

³²*Ibid.*, page 138.

³³A fuller description of the organization of this Plan may be found in *Selective Service Local Board Memoranda* 158, 158-A, and 169. *Local Board Memoranda* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945). The Plan became effective on December 7, 1942 and was terminated on March 12, 1945. It might be noted that the Plan was never particularly popular, and a majority of the State Directors favored its abolition. *Selective Service as the Tide of War Turns: Third Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945) page 103.

Headquarters, after inspection of the operation of a commercial or industrial installation and an inquiry into personnel policies, could "certify" certain militarily-eligible registrants as "essential" to the operation of the enterprise. The general purpose of the Plan was to provide for uniformity in deferment policy within a particular installation and, so far as possible, within a particular industry. The certification of the registrant was presented to the Local Board with the recommendation that the registrant be deferred from military service in Class II-B for some short period, e.g., usually three or six months, while the employer procured and trained a suitable replacement, presumably from the non-eligible population.⁸⁵

The Local Boards had the authority to refuse to accept this recommendation and to classify the registrant in Class I-A, as immediately available for induction into the armed forces, and some did. Of a group of 47 Board members with whom the matter was discussed, there were 12 who reported that they had rejected such certifications one or more times for an estimated total of 35 rejections.⁸⁶ The usual reason given was the Board members' appraisal of the occupational skill and experience of the registrant, i.e., the Board members might not believe that the skill, the training, the period of employment of the registrant at his current occupation was sufficient to make him "irreplaceable". All of these rejections had been appealed by the State Director, and only three of the 12 Board members reported that they had been upheld in their rejection by the area Appeal Board, and only one of these more than once. Although the proportion of rejections of certification was small, the pertinent point is clear. If the Local Boards objected to such "standardizing" procedures as the Replacement Schedule Plan, the administrators could appeal the Board's decision with the reasonable certainty that the Local Board would be over-ruled.⁸⁷

There were a number of other instances of a similar order. For example, after the almost complete abolition of deferments from military service on a dependency basis, some few registrants could be deferred on what was known as "hardship" basis.⁸⁸ There is evidence to indicate that the

⁸⁵One of the purposes of the Plan was to encourage employers to replace the militarily-eligible with women, and the older and the physically-unfit males.

⁸⁶This 47 was a part of a larger group of 121 interviewers. For the methods of interview, see Stewart, *op. cit.*, pages 166-186.

⁸⁷Although it was not the subject of systematic investigation, it is the author's opinion that although the Local Boards were generally co-operative, the Appeal Boards were usually somewhat more "sympathetic" to the problems of the administrators. For a fuller discussion of this point see Stewart, *op. cit.*, pages 38-45.

⁸⁸The abolition of Class III-A in December, 1943 marked the end of extensive deferment from military service on a dependency basis. The "hardship" deferments were those cases where the registrant provided physical care as well as financial support for dependents, and such deferments never constituted more than one per cent of the total registration. *Selective Service in Victory: Fourth Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1948) pages 115-117.

Local Board members, who were usually closer to the emotional stress attendant upon even the temporary dissolution of family ties, were most apt to be "lenient" in their definition of hardship.³⁹ The inspectors and auditors from the State Headquarters who detected what they considered to be unwarranted leniency could (and would) appeal the Local Board classification with reasonable expectation that the Appeal Board, separated from the stresses mentioned, would be more apt to follow the prescribed policy and procedure.⁴⁰

The administrators candidly admitted the significance of the "standardizing" role of the Appeal Boards. Discussing the lack of uniformity in the decisions of the Local Boards, the National Director made the following statement:

"The Boards of Appeal were corrective of this condition inasmuch as they reconciled many of the differences in similar cases from the several Local Boards within the Appeal Board area. Thus, the Appeal Boards helped bring about uniformity of classification in a large number of doubtful cases"⁴¹

As has been noted, the majority of the appeals to the Presidential Appeal Board were undertaken by the various State Directors who sought the "establishment of policy,"⁴² i.e., the clarification of ambiguous regulation or law and precedent for the establishment of policy and procedure at the state level. Discussing the role of the decisions of the Presidential Appeal Board in such policy determination, the National Director made the following statement:

"It is these "policy determinations" which, while sometimes appearing inexplicable, or somewhat out of line with previous action, filter down to the Appeal and Local Boards and set in action certain trends quite necessary to the support of the war effort generally, especially with respect to the disposition of ever-changing industrial and agricultural needs"⁴³

To summarize, the effective operation of the system of war-time conscription necessitated a certain measure of uniformity of operation of

³⁹Stewart, *op. cit.*, pages 42-43.

⁴⁰As has been noted, the Appeal Boards did not have direct contact with the registrants, and it can probably be assumed that they were usually less "emotional" or sentimental" in dealing with these sometimes difficult dependency cases.

⁴¹*Selective Service in Peacetime: First Report of the Director* (Washington Government Printing Office, 1942) page 221.

⁴²According to an unpublished monograph prepared at the National Headquarters "the right of the State Director to appeal led to some undesirable practices," i.e., apparently to avoidance of responsibility for decision, and some pressure was exerted on the State Directors to curtail the number of such appeals.

⁴³*Selective Service as the Tide of War Turns: Third Report of the Director* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945) page 151.

the Local Boards. Even if it had been deemed to be desirable,⁴⁴ direct discipline was impossible because of the legally-defined authority of the Local Boards, and a variety of indirect methods of control were utilized.⁴⁵ One such "method"—the Appeal Board—made possible some measure of standardization of operation of the Local Boards over wide geographical areas. The formal structure of the Selective Service System was largely determined "outside" the System;⁴⁶ this method of indirect control represented an administrative adjustment to this formal structure.

⁴⁴Space does not permit adequate discussion of the "symbolic" roles of the Local Boards, i.e., the Local Boards as symbols of local autonomy and civilian participation in conscription. However, it may be noted that the devisors of this system conceived of it as a co-operative venture, and extended use of "ordering-and-forbidding" techniques was prescribed. The removal of Board members, as a method of discipline, was not feasible. Stewart, *op. cit.*, pages 142-151.

⁴⁵Although the emphasis in the foregoing has been on the standardizing role of the Appeal Board, it should be made explicit that the Appeal Boards merely supplemented other methods, e.g., the multiplication and particularization of regulation, increasingly rigid supervision, etc.

⁴⁶The first series of regulations with the provisions of the Selective Service Act, as amended, largely determined the formal structure of the System. The first series of regulations was written by a committee entitled the "President's Committee on Selective Service" which had no direct connection with the administration of the System.

History of the Southwestern Social Science Association

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I

The oldest of the regional social science organizations was originally created under the aegis of the department of government of the University of Texas in the winter of the 1918-19 school year.¹ The initial year's efforts were largely expended in interesting teachers and public leaders in the aims and purposes of the Southwestern Political Science Association in Texas, Oklahoma, Louisiana, Arkansas, and New Mexico. University of Texas faculty members, who were prominent in the formation and early organization activities, were Herman G. James, C. G. Haines, C. Perry Patterson, and F. M. Stewart, (government), C. S. Potts (law school, and M. S. Handman (economics-sociology). Off-campus associates included such well-known scholarly figures as D. Y. Thomas (history, University of Arkansas), F. F. Blachly (government, University of Oklahoma), E. R. Cockrell (law, Texas Christian University), and George B. Dealey (*Dallas News*).

The founders of the association expressed the intention of engaging "in the cultivation and promotion of political science," through the "encouragement of research, the holding of public meetings, or lecture courses, and by any other means that may be approved."² But political science was conceived in the Hellenistic sense as comprising all fields of scholarship which related to the public life of the citizenry. Thus, economics, history, sociology, and jurisprudence were viewed as, if not distinct components, certainly necessary to the complete understanding of political science. Here was, then, another of the numberless attempts to secure integration in the social sciences. Our own times are replete with examples of this persistent idea. The ever-developing professionalization in the separate disciplines erects arbitrary barriers which, to those trained generally in the social sciences, appear as impediments to a basic understanding of any one of the specific disciplines.

Motivated by this conception of the social sciences generally, and of politics specifically, the first annual meetings featured only general sessions of the membership at which specific political subjects were discussed from the various angles of economics, history, politics, and sociology. From the first, the economists were prominent among the

¹See *The Southwestern Political Science Quarterly*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 1-2, 52-55, (June, 1920).

²Herman G. James, "The Meaning and Scope of Political Science," *Ibid.*, 1:3 (June, 1920).

supporters of the organization. Sociologists and historians, save for rare exceptions, were slower in identifying themselves with the association.

The "founding fathers" hoped to organize public officials and the social science teachers (especially at the higher education level) throughout the "Southwest," which was conceived as including Texas, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, and Arizona. This area had, as stated, "a certain community of interest in historical, economic, social, and political affairs which make it a somewhat homogeneous section . . ."³ During the first few years, the membership was almost wholly recruited from Texas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas. Louisianians came in later to constitute an important element. And after the first decade, increasing membership has come from New Mexico, Kansas, Missouri, and Mississippi, with scattering additions from other states on the periphery of the original "Southwest."

A further reason for the organization of the regional associations was that meetings of the national scholarly associations met generally in that part of the United States which lies east of the Appalachians. Scholars from the outlying sections found it difficult, if not impossible, to attend these meetings with regularity. Moreover, space in the national journals was necessarily limited, which meant that little attention could be given to the problems of a particular section. It was announced that the official journal of the new regional association would feature discussions of problems of the southwestern region.

II

From the beginning, there existed an internal contradiction in the organization. To be effective, the association had to achieve membership sufficient to defray the expenses of publishing the quarterly journal. This goal could not be achieved by recruitment from the ranks of political scientists and public officials. Practical policy pointed to the other social science disciplines. But they would not join in numbers, unless the avowed purposes of the association were correspondingly broadened to provide a scholarly home for all represented disciplines. The "in-group" pride of particular disciplines was sufficient, therefore, to force the political scientists either to starvation or surrender. At a meeting of the social scientists of the University of Texas on November 22, 1921, it was agreed to recommend to the next annual meeting that the name of the association be changed to "The Southwestern Political and Social Science Association."⁴ However, at the business meeting of the third annual meeting, the proposal failed to pass by a very narrow margin.⁵ The change

³*Ibid.*, p. 53.

⁴See *Ibid.*, 2:273 (Dec., 1921).

⁵*Ibid.*, 2:346 (March, 1922).

was approved in the next annual meeting," and for eight years the association and *Quarterly* used that title.

In the late twenties, criticism of the association's name became more pronounced. Objection was especially in the inference that political science was regarded as the most important of the social sciences by being specifically mentioned in the title. Annual meetings witnessed fairly heated debates from the floor and in the twelfth annual meeting (1931), the name of the organization was changed to "The Southwestern Social Science Association."⁷ This seems now to satisfy most members, as there has been no agitation for a change since that time.

The historians refused to enter the association unless their disciplinary integrity was maintained.⁸ Of all the social sciences, history had the most complete organizations. Every state in the section had its own historical society. And, it should be noted, the state societies have maintained their earlier virility even though historians have constituted an important membership sector in the regional association since 1923.

Economics, history, and sociology were prominent in the early years. Other disciplines came into the fold. By 1928, the sectionalization of the association was complete, with six disciplines holding separate meetings.⁹ In late years, as many as eleven social science disciplines have presented individual programs at the annual meetings. Much of this increase derived in the splinterization of the economics group. The establishment of colleges of business administration led to the separate organization of those interested in applied economics. Thereafter, this applied economics field has been subdivided into sections for accounting,¹⁰ business writing, business research,¹¹ and business administration. It is not unlikely, if attendance continues to increase at the annual meetings, that this latter group may be further divided into management and marketing sections.

Agricultural economics was an early secessionist from the parents economics group. The existence of the large state agricultural colleges, the continuously vigorous functioning of the national bureau of agricultural economics, and the predominantly agricultural interests of the region were

⁷See B. F. Wright, Jr., "The Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Political Science Association," *ibid.*, 4:77-80 (June, 1923).

⁸*Ibid.*, 12:82 (June, 1931).

⁹In the earlier years, one of the five or six sessions at the annual meeting was on historical subjects.

¹⁰These were: agricultural economics, business administration, economics, government, history, and sociology. See Chas. A. Timm, "Annual meeting of the Southwestern Political and Social Science Association," *The Southwestern Political and Social Science Quarterly*, 10:119-125 (June, 1929).

¹¹The first accounting section was organized in 1935. See "Sixteenth Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association," *ibid.*, 16:86-95 (June, 1935).

¹²First business research and business writing programs were held in 1948. See the program in *ibid.*, 29:95-105 (June, 1948).

strong factors in the original creation of this separate section in the association's meetings.

Human geography and psychology were the other social sciences which entered the association. The latter came in in 1938¹² It remained but ten years, departing officially when the American Psychological Association altered the basis of its organization from individual membership to state associations. However, many psychologists preferred to remain in the Southwestern Social Science Association and to attend its annual meetings. Human geography came in in 1932 and the membership of the section has gradually increased.¹³ For this discipline, the past two decades have brought expansion in both staff and curricular offerings in higher education.

Simultaneously with the progressive splinterization of the social science field, the ideal of integration still persists, though it appears much feebler than in the earlier years of the association. Joint meetings of two or more disciplines are featured on every annual-meeting program.¹⁴ But in many cases, these joint meetings do not embrace as many facets of the field as were earlier to be found in a single discipline. For instance a joint program of business administration, business writing, and business research, as in 1949, would still not include agricultural economics, accounting, or economics. Twenty-five years ago, all six would have been represented in the economics section. So, at present the trend toward professionalization is more pronounced than is the counter force of integration.

III

The tremendous geographic expanse of the "Southwest" makes the selection of a site for the annual meeting a matter of considerable importance, so far as the convenience of members is concerned. Even if the meeting is held in the Dallas-Fort Worth area, some members will have to travel as much as fifteen hundred miles to attend the sessions. And though the great plains are often characterized as the habitat of peculiar persons who will drive seventy-five miles for a coca-cola, experience has shown that this hyper-mobility, like most curbstome generalizations, has serious statistical exceptions among the area's social scientists. As a result, most annual meetings are held in Dallas or Fort Worth, with only occasional excursions to points nearer the periphery of the region, such

¹²See Stuart A. McCorkle, "Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association," *ibid.*, 19:105 (June, 1938).

¹³See "Thirteenth Annual Meeting of the Southwestern Social Science Association," *ibid.*, 13:69-77 (June, 1932).

¹⁴In 1948, two of the twenty-four were joint programs: (1) accounting and business administration, and (2) government and history. In 1949, two of the twenty-eight were joint programs: (1) business writing, business research, and business administration, and (2) economics, government, and history. In 1950, two of twenty-two were in this category: (1) business research, and business administration; and (2) economics, government, and history.

as Baton Rouge, Houston, Austin, or Oklahoma City. The data for this and other points are included in Table I. Interestingly enough, attendance at these peripheral meetings is usually higher than at those in Dallas and Fort Worth.

Of the twenty-eight annual meetings, fifteen were held in Dallas, and four in Fort Worth. Thus, two of every three annual meetings were scheduled in this central location. Austin and Oklahoma City have each had three meetings, while Baton Rouge, La., Houston, Tex., and Norman, Okla. have each had one. The annual meeting is held during the Easter vacation. Since 1928, the sessions have been restricted to one and one-half days; prior thereto, the meetings were spread over two and one-half days.

Since 1930, the association has tended more and more toward becoming an organization of college and university social scientists. The academic character is shown in the vocations of those elected to the presidency. Of the ten presidents before 1930, only one was a university teacher, Dean E. R. Cockrell of Texas Christian University, but he was also serving as Mayor of Fort Worth. Five of the other nine were public officials, two were university presidents, and two were civic leaders. Of the last eighteen presidents, only two, J. Q. Dealey and J. F. Zimmerman, were not teachers, but the former had served long and with distinction as a member of the Brown University faculty before becoming managing editor of the *Dallas Morning News*, while the latter had taught political science at the University of New Mexico before his selection as president of that institution. Of the remaining sixteen presidents, three were political scientists, three were economists, three were deans of colleges of business administration, three were historians, and one each was from geography, law, agricultural economics, and sociology.

Thirteen men, eleven of whom were from the University of Texas, have served as secretary-treasurer of the association. Except for one space of four years, the business headquarters was located at that institution from the original organization of the association until 1949. Those serving longest in this office were Chas. A. Timm, J. Lloyd Mecham, and Donald Strong, all of the University of Texas, who each served four years, but Frank M. Stewart and Stuart McCorkle (both of University of Texas) and Daniel Borth, of Louisiana State University each served three years.

Like the secretary-treasurer, the editor of the *Quarterly* is selected by the executive council.¹⁵ The organization of the editorial function has

¹⁵The present constitution of the association provides that the executive council shall be composed of the president, two vice-presidents, two ex-presidents next preceding the presidential incumbent, the secretary-treasurer, the editor, the general program chairman, nine sectional program chairmen, and the general program chairman for the immediately previous year.

gone through several alterations in the thirty-year life of the *Quarterly*. Under Chas. G. Haines (1920-22) and Herman G. Jones (1922-26), the managing editor was assisted by an editorial board of five members, representing universities other than the University of Texas.¹⁶ From 1926 to 1930, Caleb Perry Patterson (government), George Ward Stocking (economics), and Max S. Handman (economics-sociology), all of the University of Texas, served as the board of editors. In 1930, Welford L. White, University of Texas, replaced Handman on the board. An advisory editorial board, consisting of twelve members from six constituent disciplines,¹⁷ was set up to assist the board of editors. From 1931 to 1935, Everett Grant Smith and R. H. Montgomery, both of the University of Texas, served with Patterson as the board of editors.

The organization of the editorial department was apparently finally achieved in the changes of 1935. As general editor, Patterson was assisted by eight associate editors who were elected in the sectional meetings.¹⁸ Of the first group of associate editors, only one was a member of the University of Texas faculty. Articles submitted for publication were read and evaluated by the editors representing the germane disciplines. Final editorial decision was made by the general editor upon the basis of the recommendations of the specific associate editors.

This editorial organization has persisted until the present time.¹⁹ From 1936 to 1939, J. J. Rhyne (sociology, University of Oklahoma) served as general editor. He was succeeded by Carl Rosenquist (sociology, University of Texas), who acted in that capacity for four years. In 1943, Ruth Allen (economics, University of Texas) became editor and served for five years, being succeeded by Oliver E. Benson (government, University of Oklahoma), the present incumbent.

Space in the *Quarterly* is, of course, very limited and, as a result, it cannot be regarded as a professional journal for any discipline. This is the most common criticism which one hears among the association membership. However, it, along with the annual meeting, achieves considerable cross-fertilization in the social sciences, which is indeed its chief *raison d'être*. In the thirty volumes of the *Quarterly*, seven hundred

¹⁶There exists a tendency to view the sectional editorship as a chore to be assigned to a member of the discipline for a year only. Excluding the three war years, in which no annual meetings were held, there were ninety-four opportunities to continue the incumbent sectional editor in the position, but in only thirty-four instances was the incumbent reelected. This means that, roughly, two-thirds of the editorial board are unexperienced in regard to the duties of the position.

¹⁷See Table I.

¹⁸Agricultural economics, business administration, economics, government, history, and sociology.

¹⁹Accounting and human geography were added to the six disciplines represented in the 1930 experiment.

forty-four articles have been published.²⁰ The distribution of these articles among the seven disciplines are shown in TABLE II.²¹

Many of the articles could be properly enumerated in more than one field. However, we have classified them on the basis of what appeared to be their major emphasis. Many of those listed in the "general" category are integrative in design and seek to evaluate research techniques, methods of presentation, and potentialities for extending frontiers in several or all of the social science disciplines. The emphatic ascendancy of political science was achieved in the first half of the *Quarterly's* existence.²² Since 1936, the distribution has been noticeably fairer. Of course, publication is generally reflective of quantitative offerings, and some disciplines, like accounting for instance, are less literary in character than are others like economics, political science, and sociology. As a result, the larger number of articles submitted result in tilting the publication percentages in favor of the more literary disciplines.

From the first, the *Quarterly* has carried a sizable book review section. In recent years, as many as a hundred new works in the social sciences are annually reviewed by scholars from this and other sections of the United States.

IV

The Southwestern Social Science Association represents a unique experiment, on a regional basis, of bringing the social sciences together under the same scholarly roof. No other region in the United States has followed the example. Though departing from its original purpose, of integrating all of the social sciences in the consideration of phases of public affairs, it has nevertheless served to improve social science scholarship throughout the region. And this influence is revealed especially in the quality of papers in the sectional meetings and in the very substantial attendance of the region's social scientists at the annual meetings.

²⁰This does not include short notes, reports on the annual conventions, or book reviews.

²¹Articles in the various sub-fields of economics, with the exception of agricultural economics, are accredited to the parent discipline.

²²Some of this political science preponderance derived in an original policy of publishing, in translation, important institutional and other public documents, of Latin American states. However, this Latin American feature was soon discontinued.

Table I

ANNUAL MEETING	MEMBERS	PRESIDENT ELECTED	DISCIPLINE OF PRESIDENT	INSTITUTION OF PRESIDENT	SEC'Y-TREAS. & INSTITUTION	EDITOR OF QUARTERLY & INSTITUTION
1st, Austin, Apr. 16, 17, 1920		A. P. Woolbridge	Public Official	Mayor of Austin	C. P. Patterson (T)	C. G. Haines (T)
2nd, Austin, Mar. 24-6, 1921		George Vaughan	State Senator	Little Rock	W. C. Binkley (T)	C. G. Haines (T)
3rd, Norman, Mar. 23-5, 1922	177	C. B. Ames	Public Official	Judge, Okla. Sup. Ct.	F. M. Stewart (T)	H. G. James ¹ (T)
4th, Dallas, Apr. 2-4, 1923	172	E. R. Cockrell	Law, T. C. U.	T.C.U., Mayor, Ft. W.F.	M. Stewart (T)	H. G. James (T)
5th, Ft. Worth, Mar. 24-6, 1924	180	Walter Splawn	Public Official	R. R. Com. (Texas)	F. M. Stewart (T)	H. G. James (T)
6th, Dallas, Mar. 30-Apr. 1, 1925	203	W. B. Bizzell	President	Texas A&M College	Chas. A. Timm (T)	H. G. James (T)
7th, Dallas, Mar. 31-Apr. 2, 1926	239	J. G. Willacy	State Senator	San Antonio, Texas	Campbell Beard (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
8th, Dallas, Apr. 7-9, 1927	258	Elmer Scott	Civic Leader	Dallas, Texas	Campbell Beard (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
9th, B't'n Rouge, Apr. 20 21, 1928	226	H. Y. Benedict	President	U. of Texas	Chas. A. Timm (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
10th, Austin, Mar. 29, 30, 1929	225	M. K. Graham	Business Man	Graham, Texas	Chas. A. Timm (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
11th, Dallas, Apr. 18, 19, 1930	303	D. Y. Thomas	History	U. of Arkansas	Chas. A. Timm (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
12th, Okla. City, Apr. 3, 4, 1931	302	J. F. Zimmermann	President	U. of New Mexico	S. A. McCorkle (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
13th, Dallas, Mar. 25, 26, 1932	339	J. Q. Dealey	Journalist	<i>Dallas News</i>	J. L. Mecham (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
14th, Dallas, Apr. 14, 15, 1933	329	C. P. Patterson	Political Science	U. of Texas	J. L. Mecham (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
15th, Dallas, Mar. 30, 31, 1934	330	C. S. Potts	Law	So. Methodist U.	J. L. Mecham (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
16th, Okla. City, Apr. 19, 20, 1935	330	A. B. Adams	Economics	U. of Oklahoma	J. L. Mecham (T)	C. P. Patterson* (T)
17th, Ft. Worth, Apr. 10, 11, 1936	359	R. N. Richardson	History	Hardin-Simmons	S. A. McCorkle (T)	J. J. Rhyne (O)

18th, Dallas, Mar. 26, 27, 1937	336	Jas. B. Trant	Bus. Admin.	Louisiana State U.	S. A. McCorkle (T)	J. J. Rhyne (O)
19th, Okla City, Apr. 15 16, 1938	402	C. O. Brannan	Agri. Economics	U. of Arkansas	Daniel Borth (L)	J. J. Rhyne (O)
20th, Dallas, Apr. 7, 8, 1939	414	C. E. Ayres	Economics	U. of Texas	Daniel Borth (L)	C. Rosenquist (T)
21st, Dallas, Mar. 22, 23, 1940	500	R. D. Thomas	Bus. Admin.	Okla. A&M College	Daniel Borth (L)	C. Rosenquist (T)
22nd, Dallas, Apr. 11, 12, 1941	418	S. B. McAlister	Political Science	North Texas S. T. C.	Paul J. Graber (L)	C. Rosenquist (T)
23rd, Dallas, Apr. 3, 4, 1942	429	Wiley D. Rich	Economics	Baylor University	Donald Strong (T)	Ruth Allen (T)
24th, None, 1943					Donald Strong (T)	Ruth Allen (T)
25th, None 1944					Donald Strong (T)	Ruth Allen (T)
26th, None, 1945					Donald Strong (T)	Ruth Allen (T)
27th, Ft Worth, Apr. 19 20, 1946	331	W. E. Gettys	Sociology	U. of Texas	W. L. Strauss (T)	Ruth Allen (T)
28th, Dallas, Apr. 4, 5, 1947	391	Cortez A. M. Ewing	Political Science	U. of Oklahoma	W. L. Strauss (T)	Ruth Allen (T)
29th, Dallas, Mar. 26, 27, 1948	642	S. A. Caldwell	Economics	Louisiana State U.	Eastin Nelson (T)	O. E. Benson (O)
30th, Ft Worth, Apr. 15, 16, 1949	505	E. J. Foscue	Geography	So. Methodist U.	G. T. Walker (NW)	O. E. Benson (O)
31st, Houston, Apr. 7, 8, 1950	655	J. L. Waller	History	W. Texas College	G. T. Walker (NW)	O. E. Benson (O)

Abbreviations of Institutions: (T), University of Texas; (O), University of Oklahoma; (L), Louisiana State University; (NW), Northwestern State College of Louisiana.

¹James was on leave: work done by F. M. Stewart.

²Patterson, on leave: Chairmanship temporarily filled by Cortez A. M. Ewing.

³The two other members of the editorial board were George Ward Stocking and Max Sylvius Handman.

⁴The two other members of the editorial board were George Ward Stocking and Welford L. White.

⁵The two other board members were Everett Grant Smith and R. H. Montgomery.

TABLE II — Distribution of Quarterly Articles: By Discipline

	1 '20	2 '21	3 '22	4 '23	5 '24	6 '25	7 '26	8 '27	9 '28	10 '29	11 '30	12 '31	13 '32	14 '33	15 '34	16 '35
Agr.																
Econ.		2	2	1	2	1	2	1	3	3	4	2	4	1	3	3
Econ.	3	2		2	4	6	4	2	4	9	4	4	1	4		3
Geog.																1
Gov't.	20	16	17	20	9	10	9	13	12	13	15	9	12	6	14	15
Hist.			1		1	1	1					5	1	4	1	3
Psych.					1	1	1									
Soc.	1		1		2	1	2	3	3	3	1	3	2	5	1	5
Gen.	1				2	4	2	4	1		1		3	2	1	1
Total	25	21	21	23	21	24	21	23	23	28	25	23	23	22	20	31

	17 '36	18 '37	19 '38	20 '39	21 '40	22 '41	23 '42	24 '43	25 '44	26 '45	27 '46	28 '47	29 '48	30 '49	TOTAL
Agr.															
Econ.	1	5	5	6	4	4	3	1		1	3	7	1	5	81
Econ.	10	8	6	6	3	8	10	7	7	8	7	3	4	5	144
Geog.	1	1	1	1		2					1				8
Gov't.	7	8	5	7	9	3	8	6	7	7	8	7	8	9	309
Hist.	5	6	6	2	4	3	4	4	3	5	3	4	2		69
Psych.										1			1	1	6
Soc.	6	3	6	5	6	5	5	3	3	1	1	1	3	3	84
Gen.	1	1	2	2	2	2	1		2	3		2	3		43
Total	31	32	31	29	28	27	31	21	22	26	23	24	22	23	744

Book Reviews

Edited by H. MALCOLM MACDONALD

SAMUEL H. BEER: *The City of Reason*. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1949, Pp., 227, \$4.00.)

What is political theory? What relation does it bear to political philosophy? And, once you have answered that, what relation does it bear to other types of philosophy (epistemology, ethics, philosophy of history, etc.)? Few political theorists have addressed themselves to these issues, and practice with respect to them varies considerably from theorist to theorist. Most political theorists, for example, at least abstract from such questions as, e.g., "Is knowledge possible?" (leaving them, presumably, to the epistemologists over in the philosophy department), and get on with the job—i.e. proceed at once to deal, or to try to deal, with questions that are properly "posterior" to them. Many political theorists—I should hardly dare to say most—have, again for example, given up the attempt to include in one and the same inquiry problems in ethical theory and problems in political theory *sensu stricto*, and content themselves with setting up more or less arbitrary "assumptions" about "the good", "values", etc. And some of us go yet further—one might almost speak of a "trend"—and describe ourselves as engaged in an attempt to create a "value-free" theory of politics.

Now: on any of these showings short of that which would have political theory frankly embrace *all* related problems, the danger is that the political theorist ends up either *a*, appealing to propositions from other fields without making appropriate inquiries as to their status within those fields, or *b*, "presupposing" those propositions from other fields without stating them—or, what is worse, presupposing them without even being aware that this is what he is doing.

Professor Beer's *City of Reason* does not discuss these matters directly; but the above statement of them may enable me to "place" it for those readers of this journal who (having no commitment to review it) will not give it the second and third reading it requires of the man who would come to grips with it. Beer's tacit conception of political theory is so broad as to invite the comment that it includes pretty much everything save dietetics and—dare I say it?—politics. His thesis seems to be that the political scientist as he goes about his business (which Beer generously equates with something called "planning") shuts his eyes to a lot of problems that "you must face". One such problem: "sometimes the connections which have been observed in the past also hold good in the future [sic] . . . sometimes they do not". Why, then should we not em-

brace defeatism concerning the very possibility of planning? Or again: "As men of practical activity, we should be glad to forget the future . . . But can you disregard the problem . . . eradicate the overarching doubt that you live in a world of illusion which at any moment may be shattered by the eruption of a reality utterly foreign to your plans and expectations? It is — Beer concludes in anguish — "a hellish predicament." Still again: There is the patent "discontinuity and destruction of the temporal world," yet our moral and religious feelings urge us to accept the hypothesis of "the final real togetherness of things"; in which shall we repose our confidence? Or still again: "The World needs God . . . The World . . . is necessary to God . . ."; and yet . . .

The City of Reason is a summons to the political scientist who has been excluding such questions from his purview to mend his ways; *they cannot be disregarded*. But it is also—I hasten to add for the benefit of the faint of heart—full of tidings of good cheer: the political scientist can mend his ways with much less difficulty than he might have thought—by opening his mind to the manner in which all those haunting perplexities are disposed of in the works of certain professional philosophers, the chiefest of whom happens to have been teaching philosophy at Harvard when Professor Beer was an undergraduate there. Most of the book is accordingly given over to summarizing the logical exercises that lead to such conclusions as the following: The God whom the World needs and who needs the World exists; there is a "Saving Order, beyond history, beyond experience," which makes good "the discontinuities" because of which we might, in the absence of the "Saving Order", cease to plan.

Let me not be misunderstood: the questions to which Beer addresses himself are, clearly, important questions—even, if he likes, *the* important questions. If his point were that the training of the political theorist should include a certain discrete amount of instruction in the philosophical literature that has grown up around them, this reviewer would willingly acquiesce. But that is not his point: unless I misunderstand him, he is denying the possibility of fruitful work in the field of politics on the part of those who—this reviewer is one of them—long ago wrote those questions off as invitations to circle-squaring expeditions, and decided to give their attention to a certain range of questions that the philosophers, who do not work with their eyes on e.g. the clock and the Communist movement, never get around to raising. The issue, in short, is whether there is room for a distinct discipline called political theory, and whether the latter gets forrader *just to the extent that it turns its back on the "hellish predicaments" this book fondly seeks to extricate us from*. My prediction is that *The City of Reason*, because it never gets around to saying anything at all about politics as most of us understand the term, will demonstrate

to most readers the futility of the methodology it defends—and illustrates.
Yale University
Willmoore Kendall

PAUL A. F. WALTER, JR.: *The Social Sciences*. (New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1949, Pp., 337, \$4.00.)

Dr. Walter visualizes two approaches to the study of the social sciences. One is to study the principles of the various sciences. The other is through the study of social problems. Dr. Walter believes that the social problem approach brings out the essential uniformities among the sciences; whereas, the principles technique tends to emphasize differences. To give the student a conception of the "common ground" of the social sciences, the author follows the social problem approach.

Many students will find fault with his "formula" for social problems: "Need for social change versus resistance to change gives rise to social problems." He considers this "formula" as a "working hypothesis" to be tested in the examination of each social problem. Yet, nowhere is a social problem actually defined. The elusive formula proves inadequate. Most students of the social sciences would probably prefer to more directly relate the definition of a social problem to the value system of the society.

Although the volume is designed to serve as an introduction to the social sciences, the treatment of various "social problems" differs but little from that in most social problems texts. This discussion of social problems occupies approximately the first three-fourths of the volume. In this portion of the book, the explanation of the principles of the various social sciences tends to be superficial, which is understandable in view of the tremendous difficulty of integrating the principles of the social sciences.

In the reviewer's opinion the last section of Walter's book has considerable value to the student in chapters entitled "Social Problems and the Social Sciences", "Common Ground of the Social Sciences," and "Differences among the Social Sciences", and "Social Science and Social Policy." Perhaps these chapters could best serve as an introduction to the volume.

For the effective utilization of *The Social Sciences* considerable supplementary material in the form of lectures or reading will be necessary.
Oklahoma A & M College
John C. Belcher

DUANE ROBINSON: *Chance To Belong*. (New York: The Woman's Press, 1949, Pp., 173, \$5.00.)

This book is the story of the Los Angeles Youth Project from 1943 through 1948. The Project started shortly after the "zoot suit" riots and

its chief aim, at least from the citizens' standpoint, is to reduce juvenile delinquency.

Financed with an annual grant of \$300,000 from the Community Chest Fund, the Project includes nearly 1,100 youth groups with approximately 30,000 members. The work of the Project is concentrated in the downtown and southside district of metropolitan Los Angeles which contain the largest racial minority populations, the highest rates of delinquency, child dependency, and ill-health, the poorest housing and the lowest-income families. This area has about one-fourth of the city's population, including 100,000 youth. Negroes and Latin-Americans receive approximately one-half of the services of the Project, with Japanese, Chinese, Russians, and Anglo-Americans accounting for the remainder.

The author of the book was director of the Project during the period of its rapid growth. Fifty or more paid coordinators planned and supervised the work of 50 to 75 volunteer leaders. Special attention was given to gangs and informal groups with many actual or potential delinquents. Colorful descriptions of the origin and development of the Malt Shop Hoodlums, Twelfth Street Gang, Nine Deuces, Vampires, The Freedom Church Girls' Group and other groups add to the interest of the book. Difficulties of getting into some groups, establishing rapport, and re-channeling activities into more wholesome recreational pursuits are recounted. Social group-work techniques were used principally. Churches, schools, parks, settlement houses, and other agencies furnished meeting places for the youth.

The "chance to belong" to public-approved youth groups is perhaps the most important achievement of this experiment. This reviewer would like to have seen statistical proof to support statements of the police that juvenile delinquency rates decreased in areas where the Project operated.

The book contains ten chapters on various aspects of the needs, planning, organization, administration, and valuation of the Project. It is illustrated by charts, maps, and photographs. Dr. Robinson has presented an excellent description of what Los Angeles has done to assist underprivileged youth in developing wholesome leisure activities.

Alabama Polytechnic Institute

Robert T. McMillan

FRANK TANNENBAUM: *Mexico: The Struggle for Peace and Bread*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950, Pp., 293, \$3.50.)

Professor Frank Tannenbaum undoubtedly knows Mexico as do few United States writers. His close association with many of the men who have led Mexico during the past three decades, and with the events they have provoked, has given him the right to speak with personal authority and comprehension. This he does in a relatively small but extremely read-

able and attractive volume which takes the reader from the origin of the Mexican Indian to the difficulties of modern industrialization. Included are chapters on Mexican geography, people, sociology, history, politics and government, property, labor, Church, land education, economics, and foreign relations. There are no citations and no bibliography.

"This is not one more travel book" truthfully states the jacket description, nor is it a fundamental source book like *The Mexican Agrarian Revolution* (New York: MacMillan, 1929) by the same author. It is an excellent survey of Mexico as a whole which is probably slightly above the heads of interested tourists and not quite up to the needs of serious students. It fills a need for a discussion more serious than the journalistic products of summer vacations which have plagued the Mexican field since the opening of the Pan American Highway, and it also provides a survey point-of-departure for a reader who wants to inform himself on Mexico.

Those who examine this book from a background of previous Mexican study and travel will find arresting the author's occasional liberties with summary statements. "Mexico is a beautiful place in which to live and a hard place in which to make a living." "The difficulty of assimilation . . . lies in the fact that the *mestizo* has often so little to give, morally and spiritually speaking. . . ." Later on the same class is ascribed two traits: "personal ambition and lack of scruples." The Mexican Indian after the Conquest survived "as if the head had been severed, but the body, by some miracle, was permitted to wriggle on in the dust." The *Callismo* period from 1928 is referred to as "those debased and clouded years" when leaders with "no philosophy and no faith" succumbed to "the immediate opportunities for self-aggrandisement." Lazaro Cardenas on the other hand is hailed as "the most beloved and disinterested figure in modern Mexico."

The author says in his introduction that his "friendship for General Lazaro Cardenas stands apart and by itself." He is partisan in dealing with the former president whose "aides in office" were affected by only "mild corruptness." Most pronounced is his complete sympathy with the anti-foreign (anti-United States investor) point of view which marked the Mexican Revolution. Southwesterners will be startled by the author's placing of *Los Altos Hornes* in Piedras Negras instead of at the old *Coahuila y Texas* capital of Monclova where that remarkable steel plant has very tangibly operated since its founding.

Professor Tannenbaum's discussion of the problems of Mexican industrialization is a contribution to writing on modern Mexico. Disaster is predicted for the "proposed program of large-scale investment for capital equipment" unless the country "turns its eyes to Switzerland and

Denmark rather than to the United States as a model," and seeks a solution within the local community. A separate treatment of Mexico as the "anvil" of United States foreign policy before each of the two world wars is less convincing.

This book should be examined by all seriously concerned with Mexico and is recommended reading for those who seek a basic knowledge of that difficult and intriguing country.

The University of Texas

Joe W. Neal

ROBERT MACGREGOR DAWSON: *Democratic Government in Canada*. (Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1949, Pp., 188, \$2.75.)

L. F. CRISP: *The Parliamentary Government of the Commonwealth of Australia*. (New Haven: The Yale University Press, 1949, Pp., 344, \$5.00.)

Offered here are two new books on these elder dominions which should receive a warm welcome in this country. Both are competently written by professors of government who are native to and enjoy wide reputations in the countries of which they write. Each book is extremely well done and will meet a real need in this country as well as in the dominions concerned.

The two works differ considerably, however, in purpose and content. Professor Dawson (whose larger *The Government of Canada* won the Governor-General's Prize for Non-Fiction two years ago) has provided a small introductory volume to Canadian government and politics, designed for those who have little time or who have little knowledge of Canadian government. It is simply and carefully written and affords an excellent introduction to the subject. A great deal has here been put into a very small space.

Professor Crisp's volume, on the other hand, is written on a much higher level. It is aimed not at the beginning student, but at the well informed Australian. It is not an introductory volume and it assumes that the reader already has a rather detailed knowledge of Australian institutions, an assumption that is not quite safe as regards most American students. Crisp's book is a penetrating analysis of the operation of the parliamentary system in its Australian setting. It is not a general treatise on Australian government: he does not attempt to deal with the problems of federalism; he ignores the system of grants, the arbitration courts and—for the most part—the states. These are distinct disadvantages, especially to the American reader who might hope to draw from Australian experience useful interpretations of our own federal problems. But at the level of the commonwealth itself, the book is excellent. Though it lacks the clarity of expression that marks Dawson's work, it is always interesting, invariably instructive and quite frequently profound.

Introductory presentations of the sort that Professor Dawson has done are very useful to beginning students of comparative government, especially when written by a competent scholar who has made a study of other countries' institutions. The author's illustrations and comparisons with Britain and America are illuminating and add considerably to the worth of the book to American readers. Some of his chapters—that on the relation of cabinet to Commons, for example—are very wise and informative. In others, however, as in that on the judiciary, he ignores the opportunity to point out the peculiar excellencies of the Canadian system.

Crisp's book is the more important of the two. The literature on the government of Australia is scanty. Studies of the constitution, of the society, of financial problems exist, but this is the first effort to set forth at length the principles and problems of the commonwealth government and its operation. As such it should be received with enthusiasm. But it should be welcomed too for its own high merit. The author has done an excellent—even brilliant—job with what must have been a difficult problem of analysis. His chapters on the electorate and on the Labour party would be difficult to improve upon. His discussion of the relation between the Labour caucus and the Labour cabinet throws new light on this complicated subject and will give pause to those who conclude too readily that the control by the caucus is complete.

Professor Crisp brings to his subject a familiarity with the literature and personalities involved in Australian politics that would be difficult to achieve outside Australia itself. His readers are fortunate that this important book has been written by a man of careful judgment and a scholarly concern for carefully documented argument.

Which leads me to one or two rather carping criticisms of the physical structure of the book. His concern for documentation has led the author to interlard his exposition with innumerable quotations which, though interesting and useful, offer a continual interruption to the flow of his discussion. His points could have been as well proved by using far fewer of these or by relegating many of them to the footnotes. Scarcely a page is without two or three of these quotations which are, moreover, offset in a smaller seven point type that demands a constant and irritating readjustment by the reader. In addition, the footnotes are inconveniently hidden back in the appendix, so that the reader must either ignore them or keep flipping pages back and forth every few sentences. Dawson's book suffers from neither of these defects.

Each author has included in the appendix the constitution of his country and Crisp has included as well a lengthy and useful bibliography. Dawson too has a list of readings that is suited to the nature of his volume.

Generally the faults of each book consist of the limitations inherent in its advantages. Dawson has attempted a succinct introduction to a complex subject. In some sections this has produced passages of remarkable clarity, e.g. the description of the Governor-General; in others it has resulted in explanations that are too short to be adequate, e.g. the treatment of the federal system. Crisp, on the other hand, has written an analysis of the process of government. While he displays a keen, and sometimes brilliant, insight into many of the problems of Australian government, he has left the reader to discover elsewhere many of the essential facts. But within the scope of his own purpose, each author has done a competent and highly praiseworthy job.

The literature on these two dominions is by no means extensive and both books are useful additions. What we need now is a book like Dawson's on Australia and a book like Crisp's on Canada.

The University of Texas

William S. Livingston

STEPHEN KEMP BAILEY: *Congress Makes A Law: The Story Behind the Employment Act of 1946*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1950, Pp., 282, \$3.75.)

Congress Makes A Law is not a detailed account of legislative procedure at the congressional level. As its subtitle indicates, it is exclusively related to the sequence of actions which eventuated in the enactment of the Employment Act of 1946, and brought that measure to bloom as part of the United States Statutes at Large. The author himself in a prefatory explanation describes his own objective in the following terms—"to make a vector analysis of legislative policy-making."

In this sense, that of techniques, Professor Bailey has done well. As a sample of the possible means of studying the legislative process from the slice of life approach—the course of a particular subject of legislation throughout a particular Congress—the author has shown anew the range of utility of the so-called political vector analysis. In its combination of interview techniques whereby some clues can be discerned as to the motives for the shifting course of various actors in the legislative drama, this study rises above the typical legislative history so prevalent in the literature of the law-making process. In its search for the actual dynamics or kinetics of the legislative process, *Congress Makes a Law* is superior in its reporting.

Chapter headings run as follows: political and economic background; economic ideas and political brokers; a bill is born; the staff in Room 15A; the Lib-Lab Lobby; the Senate approves; conservative pressures; the House disapproves; public opinion; personalities; conference and compromise; conclusion and hypotheses. Four appendices supplement the

text with further pertinent information while there is a bibliography and also an index.

The volume is well written; the tempo is vigorously sustained while clarity is maintained throughout. The author frankly discloses his major premises in his preface, and in no sense ought his biases to be urged against the book. Too frequently it is forgotten that books write not themselves, but come to the melding of ideas, paper, print, and ink only because of their human catalyst.

The sins of this volume are sins of omission rather than those of commission; indeed it may not be proper to charge them too strenuously against the author. There is much emphasis, even disapproval, within the pages of this work upon the degree of irresponsibility shown by presumably responsible members of Congress towards a piece of legislation—especially one endorsed as the author sees it by the platforms of both major parties in 1944 and sanctioned in principle by a majority of the voters in that year. Less, too much less, discussion is evident upon the antithetic proposition of how irresponsibly, militant staff members come into the legislative process uncoated with responsibility to the voters for their actions.

Likewise the author marches up the road towards the hill that leads to advocacy of the cabinet system of government for the United States. This march is made to the top of the hill, only to clamber down on the other side. Refuge is had in the safer haven of advocacy of tight party discipline, so forcefully, even stridently, urged by recent further reconstructors of Congress. The implication is clear that the author thinks the grass on the parliamentary side of the fence is greener and more nutritious; yet the untested fence is deemed bulltight and breachless.

Consideration ought also be given by someone, sometime, to the ultimate implications of this concept of tight party discipline when linked with ideological patterns uncompromisingly posited. How differs this in its end results and logical exigencies from the Hitlerian Fuehrer principle, and what is the warning, if any, against the Lorelei lure of this logically monolithic concept of party action? On these points the reviewer wishes someone would write with the vigor and acumen which Bailey addresses himself to *Congress Makes A Law*.

Wayne University

Charles W. Shull

ROBERT F. BALES: *Interaction Process Analysis—A Method for the Study of Small Groups*. (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Press, 1950, Pp., 195, \$6.00.)

Presented primarily as a progress report for other workers, this monograph outlines the logic, method, and immediate implications of a Har-

vard research program in group dynamics. It is a major contribution to the small fund of concise research reports—the studies of Dorothy Swaine Thomas, Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt and others—which have sought close-checked empirical knowledge about immediate group relations.

The core of this effort is to be found in its way for classifying personal behavior in a group situation and in its system for analyzing personal behavior in a group situation and in its system for analyzing observations about group dynamics. Through experimentation Bales developed a series of twelve categories for checking interaction content according to its relevance for problem-solving as a group function. Concomitantly, he developed a series of administrative devices which, for example, would permit indexing both verbal and non-verbal cues and also the direction of given behavior as group-addressed or person-addressed. The problem called for tools. It called for training observers and checks upon their reliability. These phases of the program are described.

What marks this progress report as essential for any student of interpersonal relations is that it invites further study—study which with little cost can be conducted anywhere by anyone with some ingenuity and mastery of the basic statistical techniques necessary for this sort of research design. Following the leads expressed in this monograph or focused by it would seem to be much more acute use of time than devoting a similar amount of energy to more attitude tests and more sociograms. If this suggestion is the essential why behind publication of this progress report, it is probably true that interested researchers will — as they should anyway—have to orient work largely in terms of their own theory.

It is more than pleasing to note Bales' acknowledgment to Jameson of Oregon for arousing interest in measuring social interaction. Jameson for at least a score of years has been maintaining that sociologists should measure when they have something to measure and that meanwhile the quest for the what is equal in importance to knowing how.

Oklahoma A. and M. College

Paul B. Foreman

HUNTINGTON CAIRNS: *Legal Philosophy from Plato to Hegel*. (Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press, 1949, Pp., 583, \$7.50.)

KURT WILK (Translator): *The Legal Philosophies of Lask, Radbruch and Dabin*. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950, Pp., 483, \$7.50.)

The first of these books, by a distinguished writer in the field of Jurisprudence, Huntington Cairns, is a learned analysis of the legal philosophies of the major western political thinkers from Plato to Hegel. Thirteen philosophers in all are treated and the legal content of their systems analyzed. The author states that no attempt has been made reconcile the di-

vergent views as to the nature of law evolved by the various authors; rather each man's concepts are stated in terms of his own system and then criticized on the basis of each authors own assumptions. One of the most interesting chapters is the concluding one in which Cairns articulates his thesis, which runs through the entire work, namely that past philosophies of law and their attendant techniques still exercise significant influence on the formulation of the practical judicial decisions of today. This concluding chapter is tantalizing brief and one wishes that the author had here spun his story out a little more.

The work is valuable to students in many areas. The philosopher, the student of Jurisprudence, and the teacher of Political Theory will all find useful and challenging information in its pages. The author's scholarship and his extensive acquaintance with western political and legal thinking combine to produce a solid work which constitutes a major contribution in the field.

The Legal Philosophies of Lask, Radbruch and Dabin is the fourth volume in the *Twentieth Century Legal Philosophy Series* currently appearing under the sponsorship of the Association of American Law Schools. Like the previous volumes it makes available in translation representative selections from the works of distinguished continental legal thinkers.

The selections reproduced are related to the general area of European legal thought in an able introduction written by Professor E. W. Patterson of Columbia University. Of the authors chosen for presentation Emil Lask (1875-1916) and Gustav Radbruch (1878-) are disciples of Immanuel Kant, while Jean Dabin (1889-) is a follower of the Angelic Doctor. The shortest selection is a translation of Lask's *Rechtsphilosophie*, first published in 1905, and is introduced as an example of a rather abstract Neo-Kantian attempt to make Kant's individualistic philosophy adaptable to the modern concept of the social character of law. Radbruch's contribution is a translation of his *Rechtsphilosophie* (1932) and again is a Neo-Kantian approach to the problem of law in a somewhat less abstract manner than in case of Lask. Lask's influence upon Radbruch is however evident especially in the latter's repudiation of the individualism of Kant and his approach to a relativistic concept of legal value. Lastly Dabin's, *Theorie generale du droit* (1944) is translated in its entirety. Here we depart from the Kantian school in favor of the Thomastic. To this reviewer this selection proved to be the most interesting. Neo-Thomism is showing a significant revival in present day speculation on law and politics. It is gaining additional practical significance from its influence upon the policy and program of the contemporary Christian Socialist parties in Europe. In his essay Dabin attempts to take the traditional scholastic approach and make it applicable to modern problems.

Like all good scholastics he engages in refutation of his opponents, notable Leon Duguit and Francois Geny.

The entire publication is given unity by the fact that all the selections deal with the problem of value in law. In certain cases parallel solutions are arrived at in others divergence is marked. For all persons interested in the philosophy of law and the place of value and ultimates in jurisprudence this publication is indispensable. Likewise anyone seeking an introduction to the philosophical background of Continental and South American law this volume is of eminent value. The translations have been carefully done by Professor Kurt Wilk of Wells College and his explanation of foreign legal terms does much to enhance the value of the work for American readers.

The University of Texas

H. Malcolm Macdonald

PEARCE C. KELLEY AND KENNETH LAWYER: *How to Organize and Operate a Small Business*. (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1949, Pp., 801, \$6.50.)

Out of the wilderness of ideas concerning the educational needs in the field of small business has come the cry for adequate text material. The authors recognize this need by setting one of the objectives as "providing a well-rounded guide to the fundamental needs, problems, and opportunities of the field of small business as a whole."

The authors believe this field to be important, and distinctive enough to warrant special study. Yet, throughout the text, interdependence of all business units is stressed, recognizing that lessons may be learned from big business procedures which need practical application at the small business level for profitable operation. The material is organized with three users in mind: (a) The individual businessman, (b) the college student, and (c) the adult student, such as we find in our distributive educational programs.

Drawing from their work in collegiate and distributive education, personal business experience, contacts made with small business operators while members of a research bureau and the U. S. Office of Education, plus varied sources of published material, the authors define and discuss the place, problems and general procedures of small business organization and operation. This material is organized under the following chapter headings: Small Business—An American Essential, Employment—Or Your Own Business, Factors in Business Success, Appraising a Going Concern, Justifying the New Business Venture, and Financing and Organizing the Business.

Conveniently arranged for adapting to the special needs of the user, the management problems are discussed in terms of three main fields:

merchandising, including retailing and wholesaling; manufacturing; and service businesses. In presenting the basic management fundamentals related to these problems, greater stress is placed on the personal factors in small business, with a practical recognition of a small operator's limitation of time and advisory assistance. In most cases the general discussion is supplemented by charts, survey results, and check lists for specific types of businesses. In some instances, special problems of specific business policies, management and leadership, employee relations, relationships with resources (buying through producers, merchant middlemen, and functional middlemen), sales promotion, advertising, pricing, expense control, inventories, regulations and taxes, credit, record-keeping, and simplified record systems.

Consideration of the many problems of small business leads to the conclusion that, of these, probably the most important are: "(1) limited time of the owner-manager, (2) wide range of managerial ability demanded of one or a few men, (3) difficulty in making effective use of research, and (4) the problem of securing access to financial resources."

The authors' belief in the encouraging outlook for the future of small business is based on the long-term trend in growth of small business units, the expansion of interest and activity to learn more facts about the independent enterpriser and his problems, and the steps being taken toward finding a solution for these recognized problems. This is a recognition of the need and the plan for improvement with the authors' emphasis on self-improvement by present and prospective small business men for future progress.

In the opinion of this reviewer, the authors have presented a well-organized, easy-to-read volume of related material, applicable to the general field of small business. The bibliography, containing ninety individual references, and over one hundred seventy sources from the U. S. Department of Commerce Publications, provides a wide range of selected reading in specific fields of interest. In addition, a manual by Kenneth Lawyer is available and may be used with this text to provide a workbook for the students application of this and related material to his specific small business.

Louisiana Polytechnic Institute

Earl D. Bennett

J. R. JARMAN: *Housing Subsidies and Rents*. (London: Stevens and Sons, Limited, 1948, Pp., 294, 25 s.)

This work, as its title indicates, constitutes a detailed examination of the social, financial and administrative problems arising from the granting of subsidies in aid of public housing and a critique of the value and effectiveness of the methods devised by the national government and

the local authorities for the distribution of the financial aid in an economic, and at the same time socially equitable, manner. The study covers the period from the Housing and Town Planning Act of 1919 to the Housing Act of 1938. It was substantially completed prior to the war but owing to it, publication was help up. The delay has been if anything beneficial for there is much in the present situation that leads one to fear a mere re-enactment of past mistakes. In a concluding chapter the author analyzes the Housing Act of 1946 and makes some conjectures as to the future.

Jarman holds that it "is broadly true that the problem of providing houses at rents which the poorest members of the community could afford was not really effectively solved in the period 1919-1939, and certainly since 1945 an adequate solution has seemed infinitely remote." The housing dilemma that arose after World War I is in some respects with us in intensified form today. It arises from a substantial real increase in the cost of building added to the development of a high minimum standard of housing with a resultant inability of private builders to perform the task of housing the working classes at rents they can afford. The same factors have been at work in the United States.

The problem was met in England by two devices—retention of rent control on working class houses, and government subsidies under a series of acts.

Jarman concludes that "The broad problems of cost in relation to subsidies, of rent in relation to rates, of rent relief in relation to other financial aids . . . are still without effective solution . . ." The basic problems of subsidized housing, as he sees them are, "(a) the rent problem in relation to the size and type of house to be built, (b) the determination of a method of ensuring a reasonable level of subsidy in relation to changing conditions of cost, and having regard to varying local needs and to the requirement of rent policy and (c) the avoidance of waste and the promotion of social equity in subsidization."

Unfortunately these are not all the waves that must be met. "In essentials a successful scheme for administering differential rent assistance depends upon (a) the construction of a simple yet fairly accurate and comprehensive subsistence scale to estimate rent paying capacity, (b) the creation of a smooth-working administrative machine, and (c) the important question of establishing the principle in the minds of the tenant, particularly in view of the odium attached to any device that smacks of the 'means test'. None of these nettles, as we have seen has been grasped without a great deal of pain or unqualified success." The English experience here reviewed is vastly informative for all those who are wedded to a solution to the problem of low income group housing

via public subsidy. One need not be a champion of the real estate boards to seek alternatives.

Western Reserve University

Norton E. Long

ANGIE DEBO: *Oklahoma: Foot-Loose and Fancy Free*. (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1949, Pp., 258, \$3.75.)

As one might judge from the title, this is no profound history of Oklahoma. It is a book *about* Oklahoma written with a light rhythmic touch, filled with the author's intimate, homey observations, and should appeal to a wide circle of readers, especially Oklahomans or those who have lived in Oklahoma. The author writes of a first love with exuberant optimism; but she criticizes also, and her work falls far short of a chamber of commerce tract. It is a panoramic view of the state and its people today, and at the same time an appraisal, with enough background thrown in to give validity to many of the author's conclusions.

Here one learns of Indians and oil, of course; but other subjects are given balanced treatment along with these, such as religion and education, wheat and corn, basketball and fishing, fairs and pageants, buffaloes and birds, painting and writing, autoing and courting.

Oklahoma is something more than a large piece of flat ground covered with oil wells, tall men, and wheat fields (as described by an outsider); instead, it is a land of diversified terrain, of "spangled sunshine," and perfect "golden autumns" lasting from early September to Christmas. But the seasons, adds Miss Debo, are sometimes jumbled with hot winds, snow, or a howling blizzard.

The state ranks fourth in gas production, eighteenth in farm income, fifth in wheat production, second in pecans gathered, sixth in granite and tenth in cattle produced, and thirty-third in manufacturing; it is near the bottom in the care of mental patients; it generally disapproves labor unions.

Oklahomans believe in schools more than scholarship. Their state ranks thirty-seventh in the ability to finance schools, sixth in effort, seventh in efficiency, twelfth in general educational performance, twenty-second in accomplishment.

Though advanced materially, retarded politically, and governmentally immature (said a Brookings Institution Survey in 1935) they have made rapid strides toward maturity in recent years. In the past, politics has been spoilsy, predatory, wild and wooly, plagued with factional fights and too many elective offices. A dominant political influence has been exploitation and plunder—reckless individualism—stemming from cheating the Indian, stealing their timber, settling their lands, and appropriat-

ing their oil deposits. (Historians have pussyfooted on these matters, says Miss Debo.) Such acquisitiveness has profoundly influenced the state's political psychology. Since the depression and the advent of the New Deal, Oklahomans have put the brakes on ruthless exploitation of natural resources, soil waste, and irresponsibility in politics. Though undervaluing the expert, they have in recent years tended to approach governmental problems through scientific study. State government has been strangely calm since 1942.

Miss Debo has caught the spirit of Oklahomans. They are buoyant, self-confident, friendly, and generous. They are foot-loose, fancy-free, and going places! If, however, they have "a pathetic longing for approval," they are perhaps not a great deal different from the people of many sister states.

University of Virginia

Edward Younger

HANS VON ECKARDT: *Ivan The Terrible*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1949, Pp., 421, \$5.00.)

In this volume, a former Professor of the University of Heidelberg, now restored to his post through the good offices of the American Military Government, seeks to give us the Tsar who dominated Russian life and was responsible for the course of Russian history in the 16th century in what seems to him to be the menacing sovereign's true and lasting significance.

For his sources the author has leaned heavily on primary material supplied by two of Ivan's well known contemporaries: first the peripatetic Imperial agent Baron Sigmund von Herberstein, whose *Rerum Moscoviticarum Commentarii* (1549) are the earliest account we have of conditions in Russia in Ivan's day; and secondly Alexander Kurbsky, a renegade prince whose letters to the Tsar Eckardt has relied on more often than on any other single work.

Ivan has with justice been called the Proteus of Russia's historiography. Each generation of his biographers has seen him in a different light, and the interpretation of his role in Russian and world history has varied also with the nationality of the biographer. Eckardt is a Baltic German, and so has given space somewhat out of proportion to its importance to Ivan's disastrous Livonian adventure. Otherwise his interpretation seems sound. Ivan was inevitable in Russian history, and inevitable even in his own time, when in all the western world old patterns were breaking down and when even the east, to which Russia still belonged, was feeling the shock of tremors set in motion by the general break-up. In the west, the long trend toward national states was far advanced. In Russia there was also a trend toward statehood, embryonic but developed far

beyond the possibility of reversal, yet before a national state could come into being in the Russian land, the structure of society as inherited by Ivan had to be shattered. Patriarchal, feudal, and based upon separate estates, Russian society had to be destroyed and rebuilt. This could have happened through evolution. Ivan caused it to happen by revolution, violently, speedily, over night.

Thus Ivan prepared the way for Peter, to whom in the past the credit has been given for modernizing Russia. Eckardt gives the credit to Ivan. In his view, the Slavophiles have misread Russian history. In idealizing Ivan, in setting him up as the symbol and arch-representative of the old, Slavic Russia, they were wrong. Far from representing the past, Ivan was the very high-priest of the future. He yearned with all his heart for contact with the west—as even his greatest failure proves, the previously mentioned Livonian disaster. Thus Ivan, not Peter, was the first of the modernizers, and the prototype of all future Westernizers.

A great virtue of Eckardt's work is his careful correlation of Ivan's activities with the events going on in Europe. A shortcoming, from the American point of view in particular, is his failure to see the importance of one of Ivan's less spectacular acts of tyranny on the course of present day history. We refer to the Tsar's displacement of the Caspian Cossacks. Ordered to cease their depredations perpetrated against British merchants attempting to ascend the Volga, a band of these fierce, liberty-loving individuals, led by their hetman Yermak, picked up and left their Caspian homes and in the space of half a century their descendants had accomplished for Russia the addition of an entire continent to her domain. "The trend to the ocean" of which we hear so much today as a theme in Russian history was set in motion Pacific-ward by no single individual to such an extent as by Ivan. The legacy of Ivan is ours to deal with today not only in Europe, where we have the help of other nations whose destiny it has been to stand in the way of the realization of Russia's seaward inclination, but most of all in Alaska, where there is no one but ourselves to stop the course of that trend.

Ivan the Terrible is a well-wrought work, and of all the biographies of Ivan in English up to the present the most satisfactory. It is not, of course, the final word on the dread monarch, since in the future as in the past, he will continue to be interpreted in the light of the shadow his acts cast on the time in question.

Austin, Texas

Marion Moore Coleman

MITCHELL WENDELL: *Relations between the Federal and State Courts*. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949, Pp., 298, \$4.00.)

This book is a useful addition to the literature on American govern-

ment in that it directs attention to a comparatively neglected phase of our federal system namely the inter-relation of our State and Federal Courts. Many of the problems created by our dual system of courts are too technical to be of interest to persons outside of the legal profession and Professor Wendell has wisely recognized this and confined his work to a discussion of the conditions under which cases may come into the federal jurisdiction. The bulk of the book deals with the problem of diversity of citizenship as a source of federal jurisdiction and with a detailed analysis of the development and significance of *Swfit v. Tyson* and *Erie v. Tompkins*. The *Introduction*, covering approximately forty pages, is a commendable summary of the early struggles of the Federal Courts against State Legislatures and Courts still jealous of their "sovereignty." While the title of the book is misleading, in so far as it implies a greater and more detailed discussion of the court systems than is actually provided, still the book as a whole will prove informative to students and teachers of American government. The author is like-wise to be commended for a clarity of style and a readability not generally found in works of this kind.

The University of Texas

H. Malcolm Macdonald

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- Key, V. O.: *Southern Politics*. (New York, Alfred A. Knopf Co., 1949, pp. 675. \$4.50)
- Klapper, Joseph T.: *The Effects of Mass Media*. (New York, Bureau of Applied Science, Columbia University, 1949. \$2.50)
- Lancaster, L. W. and Breckenridge, A. C.: *Readings In American State Government*. (New York, Rinehart & Co., 1950, pp. 347. \$1.50)
- McIver, R. M.: *The Ramparts We Guard*. (New York, Macmillan Co., 1950, pp. 152. \$3.00)
- Orton, William A.: *The Economic Role of the State*. (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 435. \$5.00)
- Parks, J. H.: *John Bell of Tennessee*. (Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University Press, 1950, pp. 435. \$5.00)
- Plant, James S.: *The Envelope*. (New York, Commonwealth Fund, 1950, pp. 299. \$3.00)
- Rackow, Felix: *Combating Discrimination In Employment In New York State*. (New York, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, Cornell University, 1950, pp. 52. \$.45)
- Radar, Melvin: *Ethics and Society*. (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1950, pp. 401, \$3.25)
- Seidenberg, Jacob: *Negroes In The Work Group*. (New York, New York State School of Industrial Relations, Cornell University, 1950, pp. 48. \$.15)
- St. Augustine: *The City of God, Books I-VII* (Tr. by D. B. Zema and G. G. Walsh. Intro. by Etienne Gilson). (New York, Fathers of the Church, Inc., 1950, pp. 401)
- Sweeney, Frank: *The Changing Forest Situation*. (New York, American Enterprise Association, Inc., 1950, pp. 52. \$.50)
- Taft, Donald R.: *Criminology* (Revised edition). (New York, Macmillan Co., 1950, pp. 704. \$5.50)
- Turner, F. J.: *The Significance of Sections in American History*. (New York, Peter Smith, 1950, pp. 347, \$4.25)
- UNESCO: *Handbook of National Commissions*. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1949, pp. 188. \$1.00)

Weilgart, W. J.: *Who Is Peaceful?* (New York, Exposition Press, 1950, pp. 71. \$1.00)

Williamson, Margaret: *Supervision: Principles and Methods.* (New York, The Woman's Press, 1950, pp. 170. \$3.00)

Wittke, Carl: *The Utopian Communist: A Biography of Wilhelm Weitling.* (Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University Press, 1950, pp. 327. \$4.50)

CORRECTION:

We regret the Albert Schonbar's work was incorrectly listed in the last issue of the *Quarterly*. The listing should have read:

Schonbar, Albert: *Bitter Wine.* (New York, Exposition Press, 1950, pp. 136. \$2.50)

The Association

Minutes of Meeting of The Executive Council, Houston, Texas, April 6, 1950

The Executive Council met at 8:00 p.m. on April 6, 1950, in the Rice Hotel. All members were present except Peter Nelson, Burton Gildersleeve, and R. B. Melton. Mr. Foscue, Mr. Watson, and Mr. Werlin briefly reviewed plans for the convention. The Executive Council then discussed the items in the following agenda:

1. Site for the 1951 annual meeting
2. Publication of proceedings of the annual meeting
3. Convention registration fee
4. Report of Audit Committee
5. Status of exhibits at convention
6. Dues and publication costs
7. Membership blanks and membership committees
8. Preparation of a history of the SSSA
9. Possibilities of guest speakers at annual meeting

The Executive Council voted unanimously to make the following recommendations to the incoming Executive Council:

1. That the Association meet in Dallas in 1951, providing that arrangements satisfactory to the Executive Council can be made. If satisfactory arrangements cannot be made at Dallas, the Executive Council will select some other site in the area served by the Association.
 2. That individual membership dues be increased from \$3.00 to \$4.00.
 3. That the changes proposed by the Constitutional Amendments Committee be approved, with minor revisions.
 4. That Mr. Cortez Ewing, together with a committee designated by him, be requested to prepare an historical review of the Association.
- The Council adjourned.

Minutes of the General Business Meeting, Houston, Texas, April 8, 1950

The minutes of the general business meeting of April 16, 1949, as printed in the June 1949 issue of the *Quarterly*, were approved without being read.

It was moved, seconded, and passed that the recommendation of the Executive Council that the Association meet next year in Dallas be approved.

It was moved, seconded, and passed that the proposed changes in the Constitution and By-Laws as presented by Mr. John S. Kyser for the Constitutional Amendments Committee be approved. The vote was unanimous. (The Executive Council has complete authority to make changes in the By-Laws, but the officers of the Association desired to have an expression from the Association on the proposed changes in the By-Laws.) The report is as follows:

The Constitutional Amendments Committee suggests changes in the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association as given below:

Change Paragraph 2, Article III, to read as follows:

The amount of the annual dues for all types of membership shall be fixed by the Association at its annual meeting.

Article VI is to remain as written, with the following exceptions:

- (a) Insert words "Business Research" after "Business Administration", and
- (b) Strike out the word "Human" as modifier of "Geography". Change the last sentence of Article VIII to read:

Such By-Laws shall be currently filed with the Secretary of the Association. Any changes in the Constitution and By-Laws shall be published annually in the *Quarterly*.

Change Section III, Paragraph 1, of the By-Laws to read:

The membership dues for individuals shall be \$4; for students, \$2; for libraries, \$4; for sustaining members, \$10, \$25, or \$50; for life members, \$100; and life membership shall be extended to any secretary-treasurer and to any editor of the *Quarterly* who shall have served for a period of three years. (Note: In fulfillment of a resolution of 1942.)

Abandon Section VI and add to Section V the words:

Membership shall be terminated after a delinquency of more than three months. It shall be the policy of the Association to send the member two notices of need or obligation for renewal, and one of these two notices shall be prior to expiration of membership.

The recommendation that Mr. Cortez Ewing, together with a committee designated by him, be requested to prepare an historical review of the Association was approved.

The following report on the *Quarterly* was presented by Mr. Oliver Benson and accepted by formal vote:

During the publication year June 1949-March 1950, represented by Volume XXX of the *Quarterly*, twenty articles were published. Of these, sixteen were by authors from the Southwest (actually nineteen Southwestern authors were included, since one of the articles was a symposium of four short items), and four by authors outside the region. Eleven of the articles dealt with Southwestern regional topics; nine were of general interest. The several disciplines of the Association were represented as follows:

Government	6	Agricultural Economics	3
Economics	4	Geography	2
Sociology	4	History	1

The book review section, under the able editorship of Dr. H. Malcolm Macdonald, presented seventy major reviews, besides the lists of books received. In all the annual volume comprises 316 pages, which is a reduction of 40 pages from the previous volume. During the past two years it has been necessary to reduce the size of the *Quarterly* in order to meet the sharply increased printing costs which have prevailed since the war, so that instead of an annual volume of about 400 pages, it will apparently be necessary henceforward to plan on an annual volume of about 300 pages. By this economy it is hoped that the Association will be able to meet the cost of the *Quarterly* and at the same time to spare funds for other of its activities.

A portion of the financial problem of the *Quarterly* has been met by the solicitation of advertising, a total of five pages having been included in the September, December, and March issues. The following schedule of charges has been adopted, after consultation with other journals of a similar nature:

Single page	\$30.00
Half page	18.50
Outside back cover	50.00
Inside back cover	40.00

Members are encouraged to write to the publishers who have advertised in the *Quarterly*, or in other ways to express the Association's appreciation for this assistance. Suggestions as to possible new advertisers are naturally welcome.

The editor wishes to express special appreciation to the associate editors for the several disciplines, who have been most generous with their time and most helpful with their critiques of manuscripts; to the Book Review Editor, H. Malcolm Macdonald, for his scholarly supervision of that department; to Dean George T. Walker, who as secretary-treasurer of the Association has been painstaking in the complicated detail of the mailing list; and to all those who have submitted manuscripts for publication.

—Oliver Benson, *Editor*

The following report of the Audit Committee was made by Mr. Alvin Good and approved by formal vote:

In accordance with the recommendation of the Audit Committee's report for the year 1948-49, the present Audit Committee has attempted to make an audit for two years from January 31, 1948 to March 15, 1950.

The Secretary-Treasurer for 1948-49 rendered a statement to January 31, 1949 showing receipts and expenditures, and a bank balance of \$396.71. Only general categories of receipts and expenditures were made so no further check of the statement was possible. From that date to May 22, the bank records were checked showing deposits of \$501.24 and checks paid of \$629.14, leaving a balance of \$268.81 which appears in the present treasurer's record as received on June 17, and deposited in the City Bank and Trust Company of Natchitoches to the account of the Southwestern Social Science Association. Meanwhile, the treasurer had started his own accounts on April 18, 1949. These accounts appear in this year's records as audited by the committee.

The Audit Committee has checked the records of the treasurer for 1949-50 from April 18, 1949 to March 15, 1950 by comparing the receipts from membership fees, library subscriptions, and sale of back *Quarterlies* with the deposits in the bank. There were no receipts from institutional memberships which have been held in abeyance until a further clarification of their status has been made. The expenditures were checked with the receipted bills and cancelled checks in payment of them. The only definite assets listed are the cash in the bank and bills receivable from advertising. The back numbers of the *Quarterly* are not listed except as income when sold. A number of individual and library memberships are due, but there is no way to determine what portion of these will be paid.

The Audit Committee commends the secretary for the simplicity and clarity of the system of accounts he has instituted, for his diligence in collecting fees from both individual and library memberships that were in arrears, and for the reduction of the printing costs of the *Quarterly* by removing the names of those remaining delinquent from its mailing list.

Three things are needed to simplify the accounts and the auditing of them. First, a definite policy on the length of time a member may be in arrears before his name is removed from the mailing list of the *Quarterly*, and the enforcement of the constitutional provision for reinstatement of those in arrears for a year or more. Secondly, only one yearly date, or at the most, four quarterly dates should be used for the beginning and expiration of membership. Finally, a definite date for the ending of a fiscal year should be agreed upon so that yearly reports will be definite and comparable.

Accompanying this report is an amended report of the treasurer for 1948-1949, the report of the treasurer for 1949-50, and the definite assets as of March 15, 1949. There were no unpaid bills.

Treasurer's Statement for 1948-49

Receipts

Individual memberships	913.65
Institutional subscriptions	604.27
Institutional memberships	622.00
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L	2,139.92

Disbursements

Publication Costs	
March	651.05
June	665.11
September	536.34
December	500.91
Expenses of Secretary to 1948	
Convention	60.00
Printing, Postage, Office Supplies	83.49
Printing 1948 Program	53.60
New Name Plate	5.92
P. O. Box Rent	1.00
	<hr/>
	2,557.42

Balance, January 31, 1948	641.88
Deposits, Austin National	1,590.48
	<hr/>
	2,232.36
Expended, Checks	1,835.65
	<hr/>
Balance, January 31, 1949	396.71
Supplemented by Audit Committee from bank accounts for the period January 31 to May 22, 1949	
Balance January 31	396.71
Deposits	501.24
	<hr/>
Total	897.95
Less canceled checks	629.14
	<hr/>
Balance May 22, 1949	268.81

*Statement of Receipts and Payments For
Period Beginning April 14, 1949 And Ending
March 15, 1950*

Receipts

Check dated June 17, 1949, covering balance in Austin National Bank based on records kept by Eastin Nelson	\$ 268.81
Individual memberships	1,309.60
Library subscriptions	672.20
Back issues of Quarterly	17.00
	<hr/>
	\$2,267.61

Payments:

Expenses of Secretary-Treasurer to Fort Worth Convention	38.22
Printing, postage and mailing list charges on <i>Quarterly</i> :	
March, 1949 issue	414.98
June, 1949 issue	608.82
September, 1949 issue	521.50
December, 1949 issue	464.16
	<hr/> 2,009.46

Printing of Fort Worth Convention program	64.67
Envelopes, receipt book, file boxes and other miscellaneous supplies	27.16
Postage used by Secretary-Treasurer	45.00
Postage used by <i>Quarterly</i> Book Review Editor	20.98
Bank debit on two bad checks	5.25
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Total Payments	2,210.74
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Cash Balance on March 15, 1950:	56.87
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Assets March 15, 1950:

Cash in Bank	56.87
Bills Receivable for advertising	
Henry Holt	18.50
McGraw-Hill	30.00
Denhard Pfeiffer	50.00
Franklin Spier	37.00
	<hr/> 192.37

The following report of the Resolutions Committee, as presented by Mr. W. J. Hammond, acting chairman, was approved:

The officers and members of the Southwestern Social Science Association express their appreciation for the excellent and courteous services provided for them by the Houston Chamber of Commerce and by the management and staff of the Rice Hotel.

The officers and members of the Southwestern Social Science Association express their appreciation to Rice Institute for the invitation to visit its Campus, to the University of Houston for the buses provided in connection with the boat trip and for other services rendered, and to the members of the Local Arrangements Committee (with representatives from Rice Institute and the University of Houston) for the effective work they did prior to and during the convention.

Mr. James B. Trant, as chairman of the Nominating Committee, submitted the following report:

For president, J. L. Waller, history, Texas Western College.

For first vice-president, Vernon G. Sorrell, business administration, University of New Mexico.

For second vice-president, H. R. Mundhenke, economics, Texas Christian University.

It was moved, seconded, and passed that the report of the Committee be accepted and that the nominees be declared elected.

The Secretary reported that the Sections had elected the following officers:

<i>Section</i>	<i>Chairman</i>	<i>Editor</i>
Agricultural Economics	L. P. Gabbard, Texas A&M	A. C. Magee, Texas A&M
Accounting	Reginald Rushing, Texas Tech.	Nelson D. Durst, Texas A&M
Business Administration	Ralph C. Hook, Texas A&M	Burton H. Gildersleeve, U. of Okla.
Business Research	Harold Heck, Tulane	Francis Cella, U. of Okla.
Economics	Alfred R. Chalk, Texas A&M	Clay L. Cochran, U. of Okla.
Geography	Virginia Bradley, S.M.U.	Will Chambers, Stephen F. Austin Coll.
Government	August O. Spain, T.C.U.	Edwin O. Steen, U. of Kan.
History	Edward K. T. Chen, U. of Houston	Robert C. Cotner, U. of Texas
Sociology	William L. Kolb, Tulane	Walter Watson, S.M.U.

Mr. R. B. Melton presented the suggestion of representatives of several of the Sections that the annual programs include one or more discussion periods on social science orientation courses. It was moved, seconded, and passed that the program chairman shall work with the interested group in planning the type of program desired, but with the understanding that such programs shall not conflict with the two general meetings of the Association.

It was indicated that the Sociology Section will probably devote some time to orientation courses at the 1951 meeting, and that other Sections will be interested in collaborating or in sponsoring similar programs.

Minutes of the Meeting of the Executive Council, Houston, Texas, April 8, 1950

The incoming Executive Council met at 9:00 a.m. on April 8, 1950 in the Rice Hotel. The following members of the council were present: E. J. Foscue, S. A. Caldwell, J. L. Waller, Reginald Rushing, August O. Spain, Edward K. T. Chen, Oliver Benson, and George T. Walker.

It was moved, seconded, and passed that the President should appoint a small committee to work with him in making arrangements with a hotel for the next convention.

It was moved, seconded, and passed that the changes in the constitution and by-laws, as approved by the Association, be accepted by the Executive Council. It was further stipulated that the increase in individual memberships from \$3.00 to \$4.00 will become effective for new members and old members who pay dues six months after the Houston meeting.

It was moved, seconded, and passed that Oliver Benson be reelected editor-in-chief of the *Quarterly*, and that George T. Walker be reelected secretary-treasurer.

It was agreed that the secretary-treasurer should have any forms printed which he feels will be helpful to his office in carrying on the work of the Association. It was also agreed that a letterhead should be prepared on which the names of the president, the vice-presidents, the secretary, and the editor would appear.

There was considerable discussion on the handling of registration at the Association conventions and the handling of luncheon arrangements for the sections of the Association. The Executive Council unanimously agreed upon the following policies:

1. The area used for the purpose of registration by the Southwestern Social Science Association will not be used as a registration area by any section of the Association or by any other association. Sectional registrations and the registrations of any other associations will be held at the door of the room in which such section or other association is holding its sessions.

2. Members of the Local Arrangement Committee will not be asked to take charge of the selling of tickets to luncheons sponsored by sections of the Association. The section chairman concerned shall be held completely responsible for the handling of all matters pertaining to a luncheon.

The meeting was adjourned.

The Constitution of the Southwestern Social Science Association
(After the Adoption of Changes on April 8, 1950)

ARTICLE I — NAME

The name of this Association is "The Southwestern Social Science Association," which is the continuation and extension of the Association formerly known as "The Southwestern Political and Social Science Association," and founded in 1920 under the name of "Southwestern Political Science Association."

ARTICLE II — PURPOSE

The purpose of the Association is the promotion, cultivation, and corrolation of the Social Sciences and their application to the solution of social problems with particular reference to the Southwestern States. The attainment of this purpose shall be furthered by the encouragement of research, by holding program meetings with attendance open to the public, by publication and dissemination of information and opinion on matters of concern in the various Social Sciences, and in such other manner as the Executive Council may direct.

ARTICLE III — MEMBERSHIP

Membership in the Association shall be open to any individual interested in the promotion of the purpose of the Association. Membership is in the Association, and any member may participate in the activities of such subject-matter Sections as he may choose. To promote the growth and fullest success of the subject matter Sections in their programs, members shall indicate (when assuming membership and annually upon payment of dues) those Sections which represent their field or fields of special interests and in which they wish to work.

The amount of the annual dues shall be fixed by the Association at its annual meeting.

Membership shall not be restricted to any particular geographic or political territory, but shall be open to all persons interested in the social problems of the particular significance of the Southwestern States.

ARTICLE IV — OFFICERS

The officers of the Association shall be a President, two Vice-Presidents, a Secretary-Treasurer, an Editor-in-Chief of Publications, a General Program Chairman, and the Section Chairmen.

The President and Vice Presidents shall be elected at the annual meetings of the Association. The Secretary-Treasurer and the Editor-in-Chief of Publications shall be appointed by the remainder of the Executive Council. The General Program Chairman shall be appointed by the President. The Section Chairmen shall be

elected by their respective Sections. All officers shall serve for one year or until their successors are fully elected or appointed and assume office.

A vacancy in the office of President shall be filled for the unexpired term by the first Vice-President. A vacancy in any other office shall be filled for the unexpired term by appointment by the President.

The officers of the Association, together with the two most recent past presidents and the most recent past general program chairman, shall constitute the Executive Council. The Executive Council shall serve as a Board of Directors of a corporation and shall conduct the affairs of the Association, designate the duties of officers of the Association, and shall report to the annual meeting.

A Publications Editorial Board shall be constituted by election of Associate Editors, one selected from and by each subject-matter Section at the annual meeting. Any Section Chairman may also serve as Associate Editor representing his Section if and when so decided for the ensuing year by the Section at the annual meeting. The Editorial Board, of which the Editor-in-Chief shall be ex-officio Chairman, shall formulate publication policies, and apportion tasks to its members so as to provide assistance to the Editor-in-Chief.

ARTICLE V — MEETINGS

There shall be an annual meeting of the Association at a time and place to be designated by the Executive Council, for the transaction of business and the discussion of social problems. Notice of such annual meeting shall be sent to all members of the Association at least one month before such meeting. At the annual meetings, the Executive Council, the President, the Secretary-Treasurer, and the Editor-in-Chief of Publications shall make their annual reports and the elective officers of the Association for the ensuing year shall be chosen. Such members as are present at the annual meetings shall constitute a quorum. Special meetings may be called by a majority of the members of the Executive Council for the transaction of business or for the presentation of papers and discussions, provided notice thereof is sent to all members not less than one month before the proposed meeting.

ARTICLE VI — SECTIONS

The Sections of the Association are Accounting, Agricultural Economics, Business Administration, Business Research, Economics, Government, History, Geography, and Sociology. Any Section may select such name and officers as it deems necessary. The Executive Council shall provide for the growth of the Association by broadening the scope and/or the names of Sections now in existence or by creating new Sections, if the welfare of the Association requires it.

ARTICLE VIII — PROGRAMS

The General Program Chairman shall be directly responsible to the Executive Council for the general planning and direction of the non-business program at the annual meeting. Programs may be held separately by individual Sections, or jointly by two or more of them.

Responsibility for the preparation of program sessions of individual Sections shall be vested in the respective Section Chairman. Program Section Chairmen shall give preference to members of the Association for participation on programs. It shall be the duty of the Secretary-Treasurer to provide each Section Chairman with a list of the membership of the Association for use in arranging programs.

ARTICLE VIII — FORMAL PROCEDURES

The Executive Council shall adopt, and at least annually shall consider the revision of By-Laws needful to promote the purpose of the Association, and which are not

inconsistent with this Constitution. Such By-Laws shall be currently filed with the Secretary of the Association. Any changes in the Constitution and By-Laws shall be published annually in the *Quarterly*.

Amendments to this Constitution may be made by a two-thirds vote of the members present at any duly authorized business meeting of the Association provided that the amendment shall have been proposed by a majority of the Executive Council or by petition of fifteen or more members and submitted to the membership by publication in the *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, the official publication of the Association, three or more months in advance of the vote on the amendment. This Constitution may be amended without prior notice by unanimous vote at any duly authorized business meeting of the Association.

Procedures not otherwise established by the Constitution and/or By-Laws, shall conform to the latest edition of Roberts, *Rules of Order*.

BY-LAWS

SECTION I: The Executive Council shall meet on call of the President or on written request of three members thereof. Seven members shall constitute a quorum.

SECTION II: The Association shall publish a quarterly journal, *The Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, which shall be sent to all members of the Association.

SECTION III: The membership dues for individuals shall be \$4; for students, \$2; for libraries, \$4; for sustaining members, \$10, \$25, or \$50; for life members, \$100; and life membership shall be extended to any secretary-treasurer and to any editor of the *Quarterly* who shall have served for a period of three years.

SECTION IV: Membership shall date from the beginning of the quarter following receipt of the first annual dues.

SECTION V: Members may resign upon written notice to the Secretary, sent before the termination of their year. Membership shall be terminated after a delinquency of more than three months. It shall be the policy of the Association to send the member two notices of need or obligation for renewal, and one of these two notices shall be prior to expiration of membership.